SOCIAL PORTRAIT OF EUROPE

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Statistical Office of the European Communities

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PREFACE

SOCIAL PORTRAIT OF EUROPE

The European Union strives to combine economic progress with social progress. Article 2 of the Treaty lays down the social objectives which the Member States have set themselves: 'The Community shall have as its task ... to promote ... a high level of employment and of social protection, the raising of the standard of living and quality of life, and economic and social cohesion and solidarity among Member States'.

These objectives lie at the heart of European social policy. They derive from the common values which underlie the European social model: democracy and individual rights, free collective bargaining, equal opportunities for all, social protection and solidarity.

Clear and accessible information on developments in the social field is essential if social policy is to have a genuine impact on the daily life of individuals. In publishing this *Social portrait of Europe*, the Commission would like to play a part in bringing the Union closer to its citizens and help them to get to know their own country and those of their neighbours better, to improve their understanding of social and economic changes in Europe, and thus to arrive at a better assessment of the implications of social policy.

This second edition gives a review of the social situation, in the broad sense, in the Member States of the Union. The data used come mainly from the national statistical institutes and are largely based on surveys harmonized by Eurostat. The reader will find information on population, education, work, living standards and conditions and politics.

This information will provide the citizens of Europe with an insight into the richness and diversity of the societies which make up the Union, as well as into the complexity of the challenges facing the social policies of the Union and its Member States.

Yves-Thibault de SILGUY

Pádraig FLYNN

CONTENTS

SIGNS AND ABBREVIATIONS

:	Data not available
–	Not applicable
*	Eurostat estimate
EAGGF	European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund
ECSC	European Coal and Steel Community
ECU	European currency unit
EEA	European Economic Area. *It comprises the 12 Member States of the European Union, plus the EFTA countries, except Switzerland*
EFTA	European Free Trade Association. *It comprises Austria (A), Finland (FIN), Iceland (IS), Liechtenstein (FL), Norway (N), Sweden (S) and Switzerland (CH)*
ERDF	European Regional Development Fund
ESF	European Social Fund
EU	European Union. *It emanates from the Maastricht Treaty (1992) and comprises the 12 Member States of the European Community: Belgium (B), Germany (D), France (F), Italy (I), Luxembourg (L) and the Netherlands (NL), since 1958; Denmark (DK), the United Kingdom (UK), and Ireland (IRL), since 1973; Greece (GR), since 1981; Spain (E) and Portugal (P), since 1986*
Eurobarometer	Eurobarometer European public opinion surveys have been conducted on behalf of the European Commission's Directorate-General X, 'Information, Communication, Culture and Audiovisual Media', each spring and autumn since 1973
Eurostat	Statistical Office of the European Communities
EUR 12	All the Member States of the European Community
Eurydice	Education information network in the European Community
GDP	Gross domestic product
LFS	Labour force survey
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PPS	Purchasing power standard. *As exchange rates do not necessarily reflect the true purchasing power of a currency, the PPS is used for international comparisons in order to eliminate distortions due to different price levels in the different countries*
Unesco	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WHO	World Health Organization

For technical reasons, territories and islands not located on the European continent are not reproduced in any map of this publication.

POPULATION

STRUCTURE

In 1993, the European Union, with 347 million inhabitants, had the third highest population in the world. China, with around 1.2 billion and India, with some 0.9 billion inhabitants, are the two most heavily populated countries.

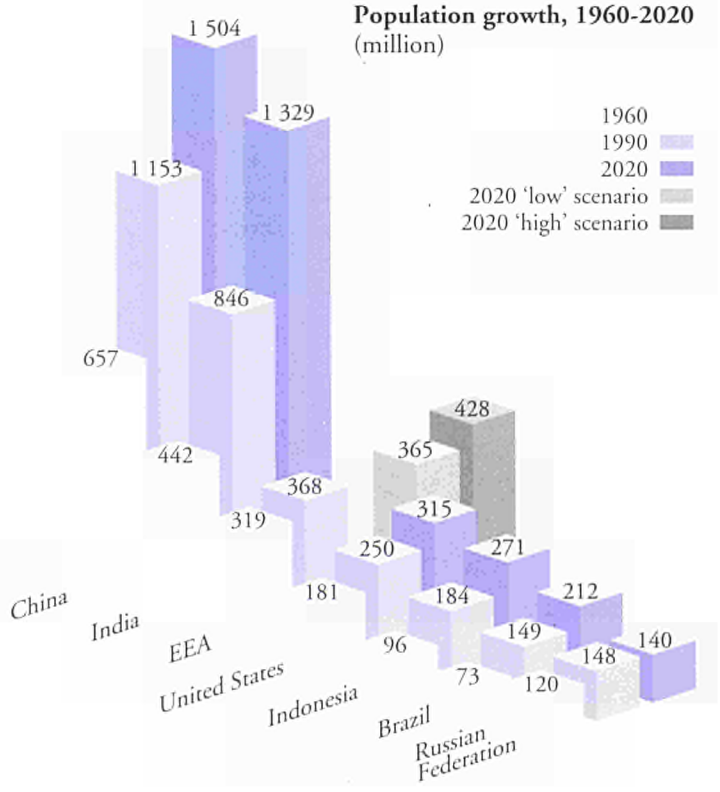
Currently, 6.5% of the world's population live in the European Union. In 1960, around 10% lived in what became the Europe of the Twelve, but by 2020, less than 5% will live here.

If we then consider the European Economic Area (EEA), consisting of the Twelve plus six EFTA countries (excluding Switzerland), the 1993 population increases to 374 million, or 7% of the world's population. In 1960, the share of the population in this same area was about 11%, and by 2020 it will have fallen to some 5%.

Europe's population is growing older. Currently, about one fifth of its 374 million inhabitants (EEA) are 60 years old or over, while one quarter are under 20 years old. By 2020, according to the Eurostat population scenarios, the situation will have been reversed, with young people accounting for about one fifth of the total and more than one quarter being over 60.

In 1993, the 'oldest' countries of the EEA were Sweden, Norway and the United Kingdom, the 'youngest' were Ireland, Iceland and Portugal.

Population growth, 1960-2020
(million)



Since 1960, the population of the European Union has grown by 51 million or 17.3%.

At the beginning of the 1960s, the present Union had a total population of 296 million people which, by 1993, had increased to 347 million. The population of the EEA grew over this same period by 55 million people or 17.2%, from 319 million to 374 million.

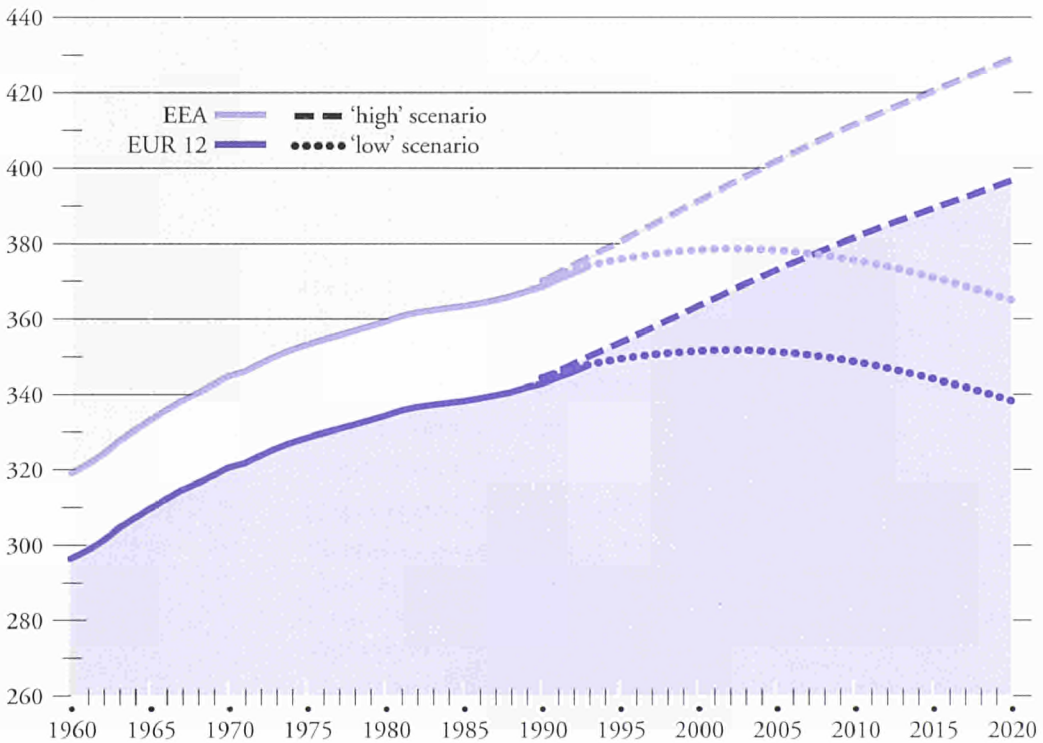
By 2020, there could be a further, almost linear increase to 396 million in the European Union population.

According to the 'high' scenario, there would be 428 million inhabitants in the EEA by 2020. If fertility continued to go down and net immigration remained relatively low ('low' scenario), the population would cease to increase after the turn of the century, to return to current levels.

In the past, the population of all the EEA countries has grown.

Between 1960 and 1993, the highest increases were in the two smallest countries, Liechtenstein (+ 84%) and Iceland (+ 51%). In third place according to this ranking came the Netherlands, with a population increase of 33%. The smallest increases were in Portugal and Belgium (+ 10% in each case).

Total population in the European Union and the European Economic Area, 1960-2020
(million)



Total population in the European Union and the European Economic Area

(in thousands)

	1960	1970	1980	1990	1993	2000 'low'	2000 'high'	2020 'low'	2020 'high'
EUR 12	296 082	320 294	333 952	342 446	347 316	351 152	363 040	337 899	396 111
EEA	318 755	344 456	358 903	368 123	373 534	377 930	390 870	364 633	428 455

The Eurostat population scenarios for the European Union and EFTA countries project the population by sex and age for the period 1990-2020 on the basis of two sets of hypotheses.

The 'low' scenario assumes:

a further decrease in the average number of children per woman to a level of around 1.5 (EUR 12) or 1.6 (EFTA) for female generations recently born;

a slight increase in life expectancy during the 1990s and stagnation thereafter;

a return to more moderate net immigration levels which, from 1994 onwards, will result in an annual surplus of 300 000 persons for the 19 countries overall (EUR 12: 250 000; EFTA: 50 000).

The 'high' scenario assumes:

an increase in age-specific fertility rates to around 2 (EUR 12) or 2.1 (EFTA) children per woman;

a continuing increase in longevity during the next three decades;

a net immigration level of 900 000 a year (EUR 12: 750 000; EFTA: 150 000) from 1994 onwards.

Growth of the total population, 1 January

(in thousands)

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	A	FIN	IS	FL	N	S	EEA	CH
1960	**296 082**	9 129	4 565	72 543	8 300	30 327	45 465	2 836	50 026	313	11 417	8 997	52 164	7 030	4 413	174	16	3 568	7 471	318 738	5 296
1970	**320 294**	9 660	4 907	78 269	8 780	33 588	50 528	2 943	53 685	339	12 958	9 075	55 546	7 455	4 614	204	21	3 863	8 004	344 435	6 169
1980	**333 952**	9 855	5 122	78 180	9 588	37 242	53 731	3 393	56 388	363	14 091	9 714	56 285	7 546	4 771	227	26	4 079	8 303	358 878	6 312
1990	**342 447**	9 948	5 135	79 113	10 057	38 924	56 577	30507	56 712	379	14 893	9 878	57 323	7 660	4 974	254	28	4 233	8 527	368 096	6 674
1992	**345 587**	10 022	5 162	80 275	10 280	39 056	57 218	3,544	56 757	390	15 129	9 855	57 900	7 861	5 029	260	29	4 274	8 644	371 654	6 843
1993	**347 316**	10 068	5 181	80 975	10 346	39 114	57 530	3,560	56 960	395	15 239	9 860	58 088	7 910	5 055	262	30	4 299	8 692	373 534	6 908
1994	:	10 101	5 197	81 338	:	39 168	57 800	3,571	57 154	401	15 341	:	58 276	8 006	5 078	265	30	4 327	8 745	:	6 969

In 1992, the highest population growth was in Liechtenstein and Luxembourg.

These high growth rates (+ 16.4 per 1 000 in Liechtenstein and + 13.9 per 1 000 in Luxembourg) were attributable to both a natural increase and net immigration. Despite a negative balance of migration, Iceland had a population growth of 10.2‰. There were seven countries below the European average growth of 5 per 1 000, namely Belgium, Ireland, Denmark, Italy, United Kingdom, Spain and Portugal.

In 1992, the natural growth rate for the EEA was 1.5 per 1 000 inhabitants.

With its elderly population and low fertility rate, Germany had a negative natural growth figure — down 76 400 persons (– 1.0‰). The highest rate of all EEA countries was Iceland's and the lowest Liechtenstein's, with a substantial gap between the two (11.1 and 6.5‰). The EU country with the highest natural increase is still Ireland, with 5.8%.

Where the total population growth of the EEA is concerned, the impact of migration is over twice as high as that of the balance of births and deaths.

Migration led to an increase in the population of around 3.5‰ in 1992. Since 1960, there have been only a few isolated years in the 1960s and a short period at the beginning of the 1980s when negative net migration was recorded in all the countries of today's EEA.

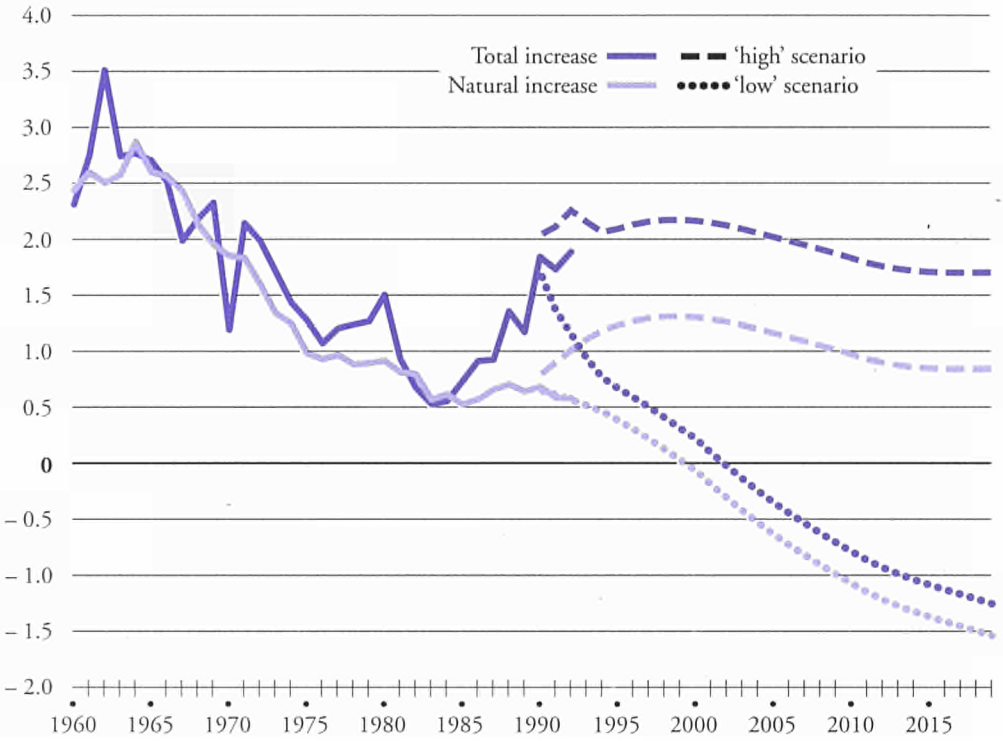
The only EEA countries with negative net migration balances were Iceland, Ireland and Portugal, which lost around 1 per 1 000 of their populations. In contrast, Germany, Liechtenstein and Luxembourg had high positive migration balances of around 1% of their populations.

[1] Including adjustments.

Population growth might continue to slow down as it has in the past.

Between 1960 and the first half of the 1980s, EEA annual population figures showed a general decline. There was then an upward trend until the beginning of the 1990s as a result of immigration. According to the 'high' population scenario, population growth will from now on be more or less stable at about 2 million a year. The 'low' scenario predicts negative growth.

Population growth by components, EEA
(million)



Population growth by components

(per 1 000 inhabitants of the average population)

	EUR 12 [1]	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I [2]	L	NL	P	UK
Natural increase rate													
1960	**7.7**	4.5	7.1	5.3	11.6	13.0	6.5	9.9	8.8	4.1	13.2	13.4	6.0
1970	**5.5**	2.4	4.6	0.9	8.1	11.3	6.0	10.4	7.2	0.8	9.9	10.1	4.5
1980	**2.6**	1.1	0.3	– 1.1	6.3	7.5	4.7	11.9	1.7 [1]	0.2	4.7	6.5	1.6
1990	**1.8**	1.9	0.5	– 0.2	0.8	1.8	4.2	6.2	0.6 [1]	3.0	4.6	1.3	2.7
1992	**1.4**	2.1 [1]	1.3	– 0.9	0.6	1.3	3.9	5.8	0.2 [1]	2.9	4.4	1.4	2.5
Negative net migration													
1960	**– 0.4**	0.5	0.7	2.4	– 3.7	– 4.6	3.1	– 14.8	– 1.9	1.7	– 1.1	– 25.5	2.1
1970	**:**	0.4	2.4	7.2	– 5.3	– 0.8	3.5	– 1.2	– 2.2	3.1	2.6	– 16.4	– 0.3
1980	**1.7**	– 0.3	0.1	3.9	5.2	3.0	0.8	– 0.2	– 0.1	3.7	3.7	4.3	– 0.7
1990	**2.8**	2.0	1.6	7.9	5.5	0.0	1.4	– 2.3	0.3 [1]	10.3	4.0	– 3.3	0.1
1992	**3.4**	2.6	2.2	9.8	5.8	0.2	1.6	– 1.7	3.0 [1]	10.8	3.8	– 1.0	– 0.2
Increase in population													
1960	**7.3**	5.4	7.7	7.5	7.9	8.4	9.6	– 4.9	6.9	6.0	12.1	– 12.1	8.1
1970	**3.3**	– 1.0	6.9	– 2.6	2.8	13.0	9.6	9.3	5.1	3.9	12.4	– 6.7	4.2
1980	**4.3**	0.8	0.3	2.8	11.5	10.5	5.5	11.8	1.6	3.8	8.3	10.8	1.0
1990	**4.7**	3.9	2.1	8.1	6.3	1.8	5.6	3.8	0.9 [1]	13.4	7.9	– 1.9	4.9
1992	**5.0**	4.6	3.6	8.7	6.5	1.5	5.4	4.6	3.6 [1]	13.8	7.2	0.4	3.2

[1] Rate refers to the resident population.
[2] Provisional data.

The most noticeable feature of population dynamics in the EEA is its ageing population.

The ageing of the population is caused by declining fertility and increasing life expectancy, as well as the ageing of the cohorts born in the late 1950s and 1960s which are numerically important (baby boom). The process of ageing is general, but there are differences from country to country. It affected some Scandinavian countries (Norway and Sweden), Germany and the United Kingdom earlier and to a greater extent; it was reflected in some southern European countries (Spain and Portugal), as well as Ireland, Iceland and Liechtenstein, at a later stage.

In 1993, more than 90 million young people aged 19 or under accounted for one quarter of the total population of the EEA countries.

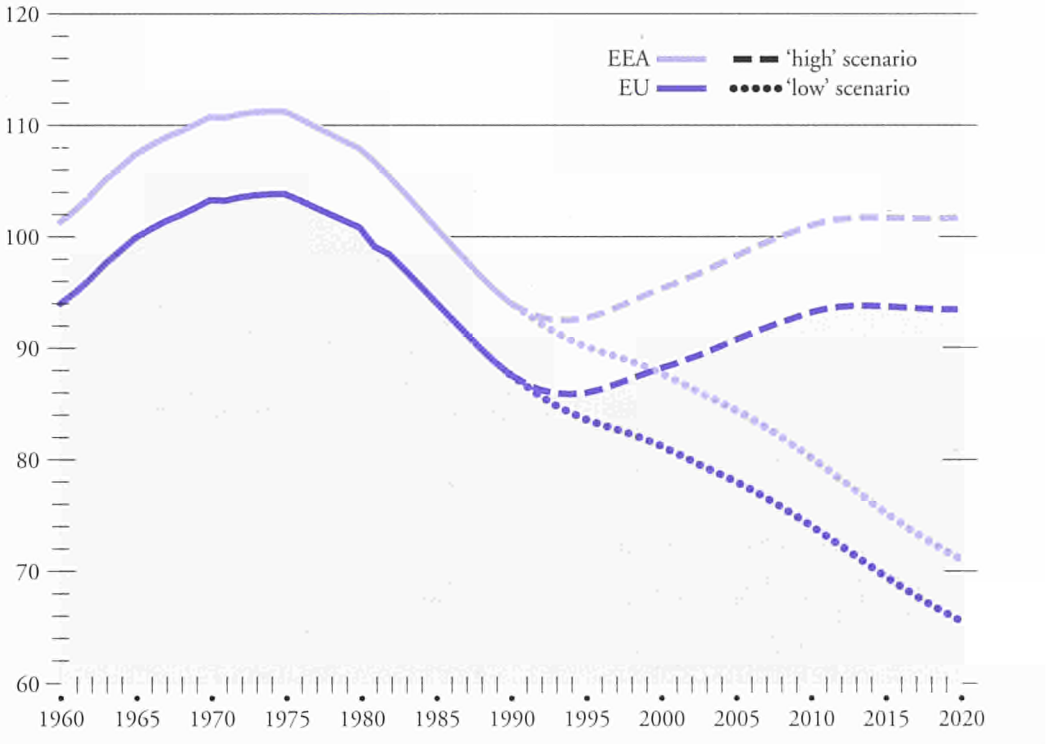
In the late 1960s, however, and at the beginning of the 1970s, after the baby boom, there were more than 100 million young people aged up to 19 years in what is now the European Union, and about 110 million in the EEA. Decreasing fertility in the past has led to the decline in numbers. Assuming low fertility levels, the number of young people will continue to fall, dropping to 71 million by 2020 according to the low scenario. The high scenario suggests an increase to more than 100 million by the end of the projection period.

Young people (aged under 20) in the European Union and the European Economic Area

(in thousands)

	1960	1970	1980	1990	1993	2000 'low'	2000 'high'	2020 'low'	2020 'high'
EUR 12	94 075	103 447	100 888	87 443	84 768	81 304	88 139	65 649	93 445
EEA	101 396	110 911	107 978	93 856	91 279	87 837	95 230	71 193	101 656

Young people (aged under 20) in the European Union and the European Economic Area, 1960-2020 (million)



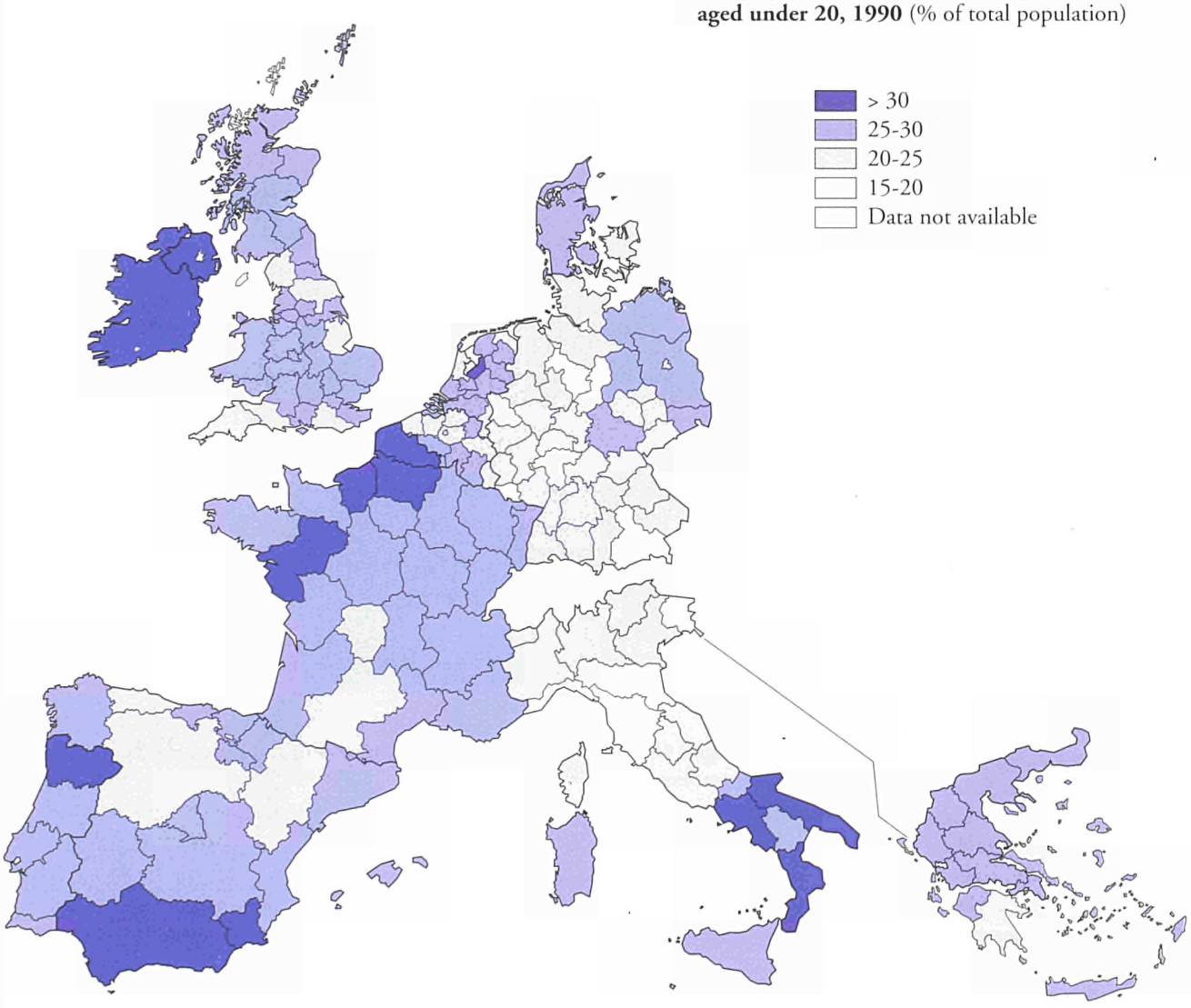
In 1990, the highest proportion of young people aged under 20 was in Ireland (36.9%).

Young people accounted for only 21.8% of the population of Germany, however. Owing to the higher level of births assumed for the high scenario, the proportion of young people would remain stable or decrease only slightly if this scenario became reality. The low variant, with its marked decline in births, predicts that the proportion of young people will go down to between 24.5% (Ireland) and 16.9% (Germany) by 2020.

The youngest regions in the EU are Portugal, the south of Spain, the north-east of France and Ireland.

In 1990, these regions recorded the highest percentages of under-20s. The smallest percentages were in the eastern parts of the Union: Germany and northern Italy. These are the only two countries with regions where under 23% of the population are aged under 20.

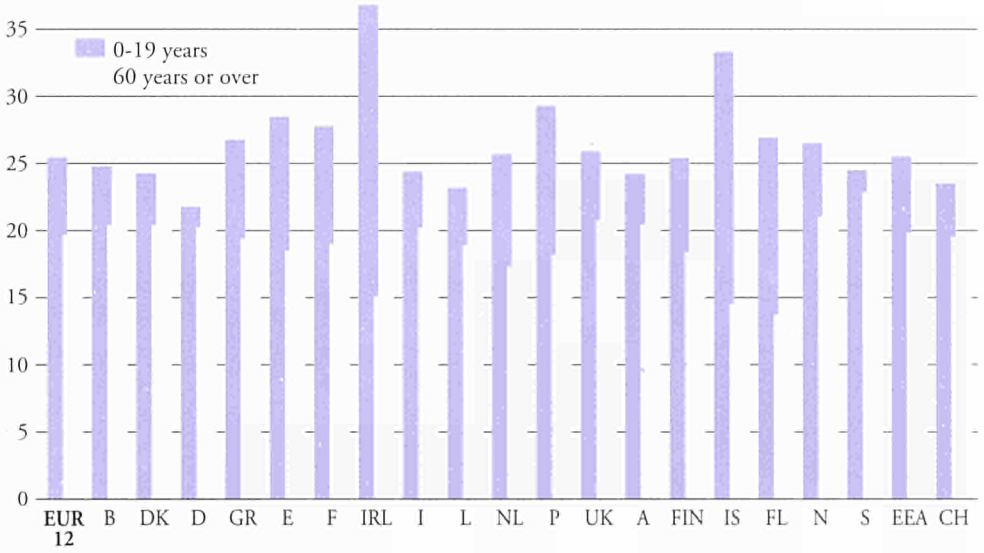
Geographical breakdown of the population aged under 20, 1990 (% of total population)



In 1990, one fifth of the population of Europe was aged 60 or over.

Only three countries, Liechtenstein (13.7%), Iceland (14.5%) and Ireland (15.1%) have very low proportions of elderly people. In the other countries, they range from 22.8% (Sweden) to 17.3% (Netherlands).

Proportion of young and elderly people in the total population, 1990 (%)



Since 1960, there has been a steady increase in Europe's elderly population.

The absolute number of persons aged 60 or over in the EEA has risen steadily since 1960 apart from during a short period of stagnation in the late 1970s.

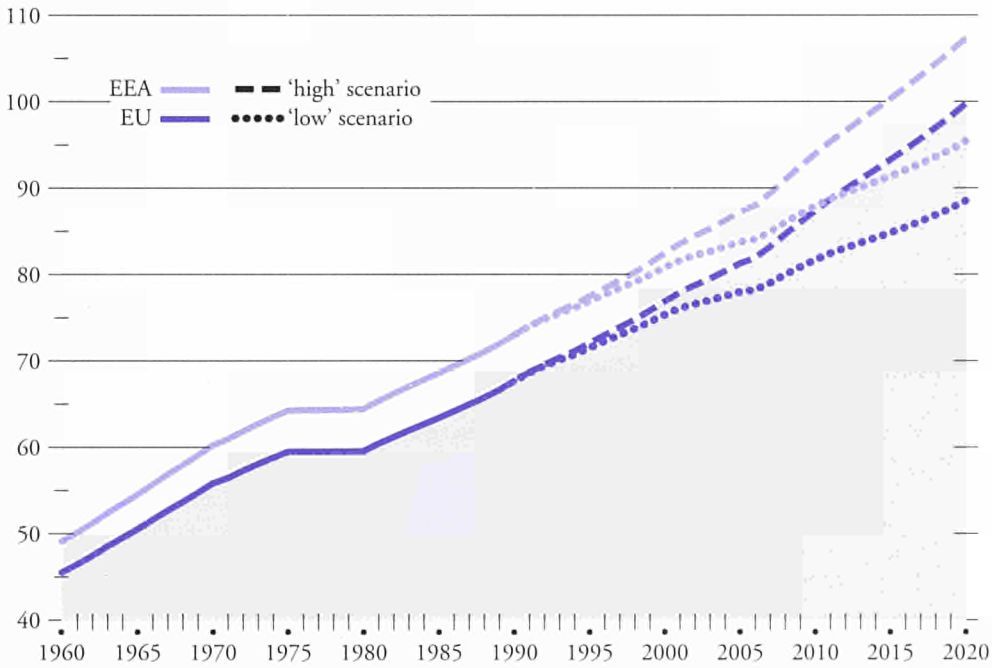
In 1960, what is now the EEA had a population of 49 million people aged 60 or over. By 1990, the figure was higher than 75 million. This trend is likely to continue in future, regardless of which scenario one uses. In 2020, according to the high scenario, the number of older people in the EEA will be 107 million and according to the low variant 95 million, only a little lower. The number of elderly people is thus expected to double between 1960 and 2020, by which time one quarter of the population of Europe will be 60 years old or over, with the highest proportions in Italy and Germany and the lowest in Ireland and Iceland (according to both scenarios).

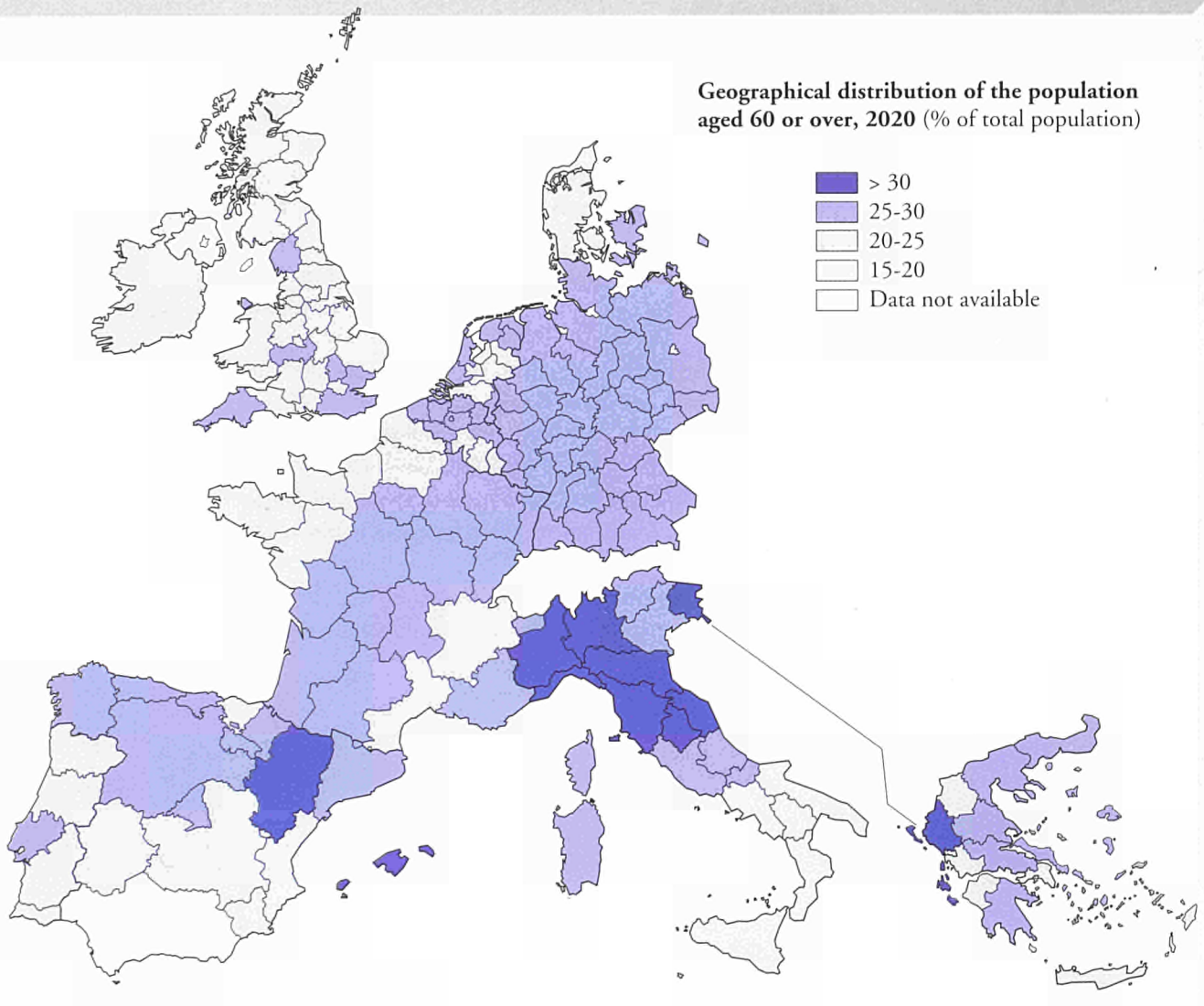
Population of the European Union and the European Economic Area aged 60 or over

(in thousands)

	1960	1970	1980	1990	1993	2000 'low'	2000 'high'	2020 'low'	2020 'high'
EUR 12	45 594	55 833	59 151	67 601	70 321	75 331	76 878	88 499	99 719
EEA	49 205	60 253	64 023	72 954	75 731	80 809	82 448	95 376	107 329

Population aged 60 or over in the European Union and the European Economic Area, 1960-2020 (million)





NB: Data calculated as averages of 'high' and 'low' scenarios.

By 2020, the only areas where elderly people account for under 20% of the population will be Andalusia (Spain) and Northern Ireland.

By then, over 30% of the population of Aragón and the Balearic Islands (Spain), certain regions in northern and central Italy and the Greek regions of Epirus and the Ionian Islands will be elderly.

The over-80s are becoming an important population subgroup.

In 1990, 17.1% of Europe's population aged over 60 were aged 80 or over. Percentages ranged from 19.3% in France to 13.7% in Portugal. With increasing life expectancy, these figures are expected to rise. By 2020, the high scenario forecasts around 22%. Thus the subgroup of the very old is likely to grow more rapidly than the total population of retirement age.

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POPULATION

FERTILITY

Between 1960 and 1992, the number of births in the European Economic Area countries fell from 5.9 million to 4.3 million.

The fall in fertility occurred later and at a faster rate in the Mediterranean countries than in the northern countries.

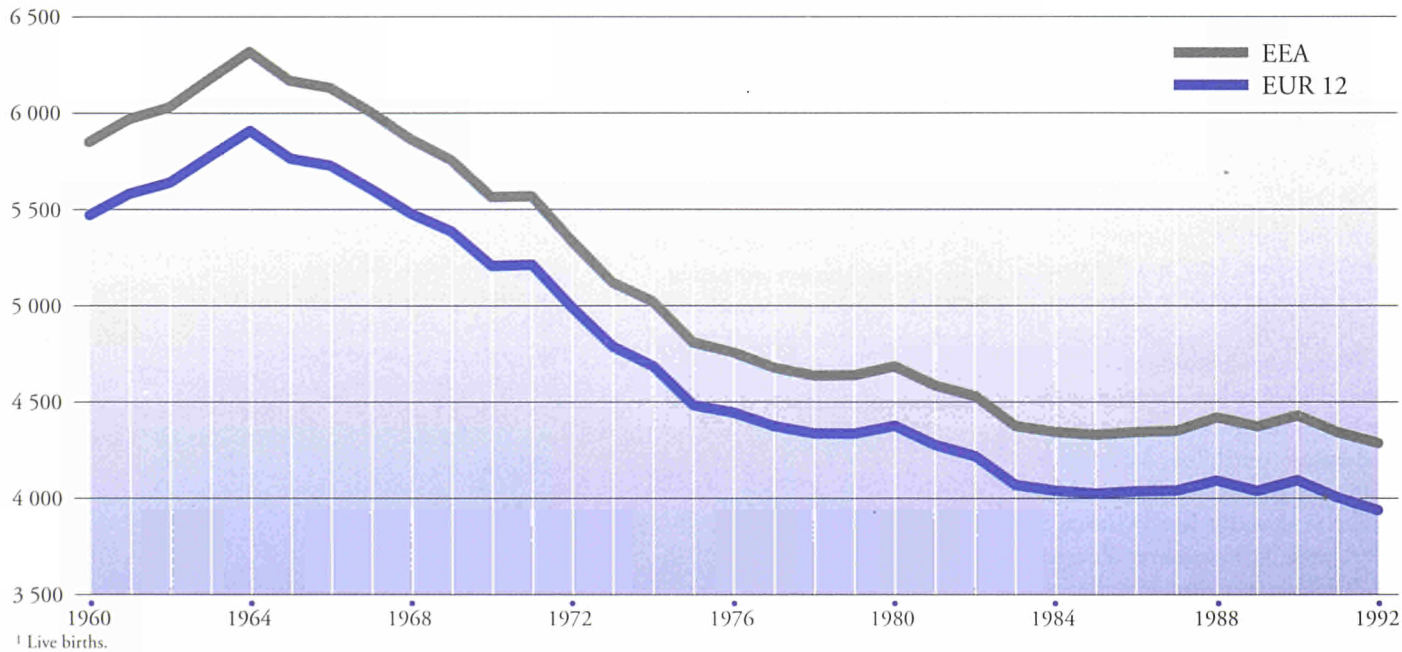
Approximately 90% of women have their children before the age of 35 years.

In 1990, the average age of the mother at the time of giving birth was 28.17 years.

In almost all countries in the European Economic Area, the completed fertility of women born in 1957 will be below the threshold at which the generations are replaced.

In 1992, 21% of infants born in the European Economic Area had unmarried parents.

Number of births[1] since 1960 (in thousands)



[1] Live births.

Women are having fewer and fewer children.

The past 30 years have seen a sizeable fall in the birth rate, by almost a third between 1964 and 1982.

After a stable period between 1984 and 1990, the number of live births began to fall again from 1990. In 1992, there were 4 287 000 births in the EEA countries, the lowest figure since 1960.

The decrease in fertility over the past 30 years has not occurred simultaneously in all EEA countries.

In the northern countries such as Belgium, Denmark, Germany, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the EFTA countries, the fall in fertility began in the early 1960s.

From 1975, this fall slowed, subsequently remaining constant in Belgium, France, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Austria and Switzerland and even rising in Denmark, Luxembourg and the Scandinavian countries. In Germany, the total fertility rate stabilized after 1973 at about 1.5 children per woman, but has suffered a new decline since reunification.

The southern European countries (Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal) that did not experience this sharp fall in the 1960s, recorded a later and even more rapid decrease around 1975, when the total fertility rate of the northern countries had begun to stabilize. Although it became apparent that the trend had begun to slow, the levels reached in 1991 were the lowest ever observed (1.3 children per woman in Spain and 1.28 in Italy).

Total fertility rate

	1960	1970	1980	1992
EUR 12	**2.61**	**2.40**	**1.82**	**1.48**
B	2.56	2.25	1.68	1.56
DK	2.54	1.95	1.55	1.76
D	2.37	2.03	1.56	1.33 [1]
GR	2.28	2.39	2.21	1.39
E	2.86	2.90	2.20	1.30 [1]
F	2.73	2.47	1.95	1.73
IRL	3.76	3.93	3.23	2.03
I	2.41	2.42	1.64	1.28 [1]
L	2.28	1.98	1.49	1.64
NL	3.12	2.57	1.60	1.59
P	3.10	2.83	2.18	1.55
UK	2.72	2.43	1.90	1.79
A	2.69	2.29	1.62	1.51
FIN	2.72	1.83	1.63	1.85
IS	:	2.81	2.48	2.21
N	2.91	2.50	1.72	1.88
S	2.20	1.92	1.68	2.09
EEA	:	:	1.81	1.54
CH	2.44	2.10	1.55	1.58

[1] 1991 data.

Ireland stands out with its high level of fertility and Sweden has seen a spectacular rise in its fertility rate.

In Ireland, until the early 1970s, the total fertility rate was close to four children per woman. After a significant fall in this indicator during the following 20 years, it was the only European Union Member State to exceed two children per woman in 1992.

In Sweden, the total fertility rate was 1.6 children per woman in 1983. It has since increased, reaching the level at which the generations are replaced in 1991 (2.1 children per woman).

The ***total fertility rate*** is calculated by adding the fertility rates by age observed in a given year and is expressed as the average number of children per woman. It is calculated from the fertility rates of women aged between 15 and 50 years, i.e. from 35 different generations. Not only does this indicator depend on the intensity of fertility, but also on its timing. If, in a particular year, all women decided to have a child one year later, the total fertility rate for that year would be zero although the completed fertility of none of those 35 generations would be zero (completed fertility: see box below).

This indicator gives a latitudinal view of fertility.

Young women are having children later.

Over the last 10 years, the average age of the mother at the time of giving birth has risen. Until the mid-1970s in the northern countries and until the mid-1980s in the Mediterranean countries and Ireland, women were having children earlier and earlier.

The combination of low fertility rates amongst older women (since they had their children earlier) and low rates amongst young women (who postpone their plans for having children) is partly responsible for the fall in the total fertility rate.

The fall in the average age of women at the time of giving birth means that the total fertility rate underestimates the completed fertility of women who are still having children.

Presuming that the childbearing years of a woman are complete when she reaches 50, after which women very rarely have children, the completed fertility of women born in 1942 could be calculated for 1992. However, since about 90% of women have their children before the age of 35, the completed fertility of women born in 1957 could be estimated with an acceptable margin of error. It varies from 1.65 in Germany to 2.57 in Ireland.

Women born in 1957 have fewer children than their mothers.

Between the generations born in 1930 and 1957, completed fertility is on the decrease in all countries, particularly Ireland and Portugal, where the completed fertility of women born in the late 1950s decreased by about one child in the space of 27 years.

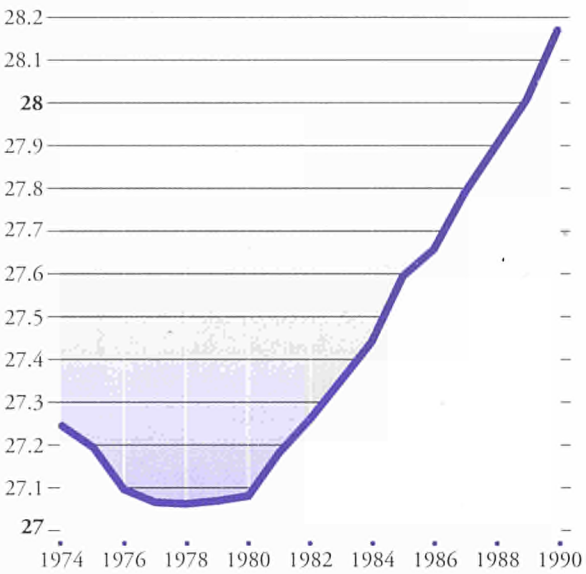
With the exception of France, Ireland and Iceland, the completed fertility of women born in 1957 will be below the threshold at which the generations are replaced.

The ***completed fertility*** of a generation is the number of children born to all women born in the same year. This indicator may be calculated from the statistics of live births by age of the mother, but cannot be calculated until the childbearing years of women (on average between the ages of 15 and 50) in each generation are over.

In order to calculate the completed fertility of women from the 1940 generation, who were 15 in 1955, 16 in 1956, 17 in 1957 and 50 in 1990, the annual fertility rates are added together at 15 years in 1955, at 16 years in 1956, etc., up to 50 years in 1990.

This indicator gives a longitudinal view of fertility.

Average age on birth of first child, EUR 12



Completed fertility
Year of birth of mother

	1930	1940	1950	1957
EUR 12	:	:	:	**1.83**
B	2.30	2.17	1.83	1.81
DK	2.36	2.24	1.90	1.83
D	2.17	1.98	1.72	1.65
GR	2.21	2.01	2.07	1.91
E	2.59	2.59	2.18	1.84
F	2.64	2.41	2.11	2.13
IRL	3.50	3.27	3.01	2.57
I	2.29	2.14	1.90	1.70
L	2.11	1.97	1.71	1.68
NL	2.65	2.21	1.90	1.85
P	2.95	2.61	2.02	1.92
UK	2.35	2.36	2.02	2.00
A	2.32	2.17	1.91	1.70
FIN	2.51	2.03	1.85	1.92
IS	:	:	2.67	2.49
N	2.49	2.45	2.09	2.04
S	2.16	2.05	2.00	2.06
EEA	:	:	:	1.85
CH	2.18	2.07	1.79	1.73

Some 21% of children born in 1992 in the EEA countries had unmarried parents.

The corresponding figure for 1960 was a mere 5.1%. This rise reflects both an increase in the sexual relations of young single persons and the unpopularity of marriage in the 1970s. The fall in the cumulated marriage frequency which occurred at this time in most of the EEA member countries, together with the increase in the average age at first marriage, corroborate this phenomenon. Although up until then the institution of marriage had been viewed as the only legitimate framework for procreation, the explosion of births outside marriage showed that young people had taken a new approach to living together as couples.

In 1992, 50% of births in Scandinavian countries (except for Finland and Norway) were outside marriage.

Although they increased in all EEA countries, they represented about 33% of births in France, the UK and Finland, fewer than 10% in Italy, and 2.6% in Greece.

In Germany, Ireland and the United Kingdom, young women in particular had children outside marriage.

In these countries, the curve for fertility outside marriage showed an asymmetrical trend which, although not evident from the general curve, corresponds to a higher concentration of births outside marriage amongst the youngest mothers.

In contrast, in the Scandinavian countries and France, the age distribution of fertility rates outside marriage closely resembles that of general fertility: fertility outside marriage has a similar time scale to that of general fertility.

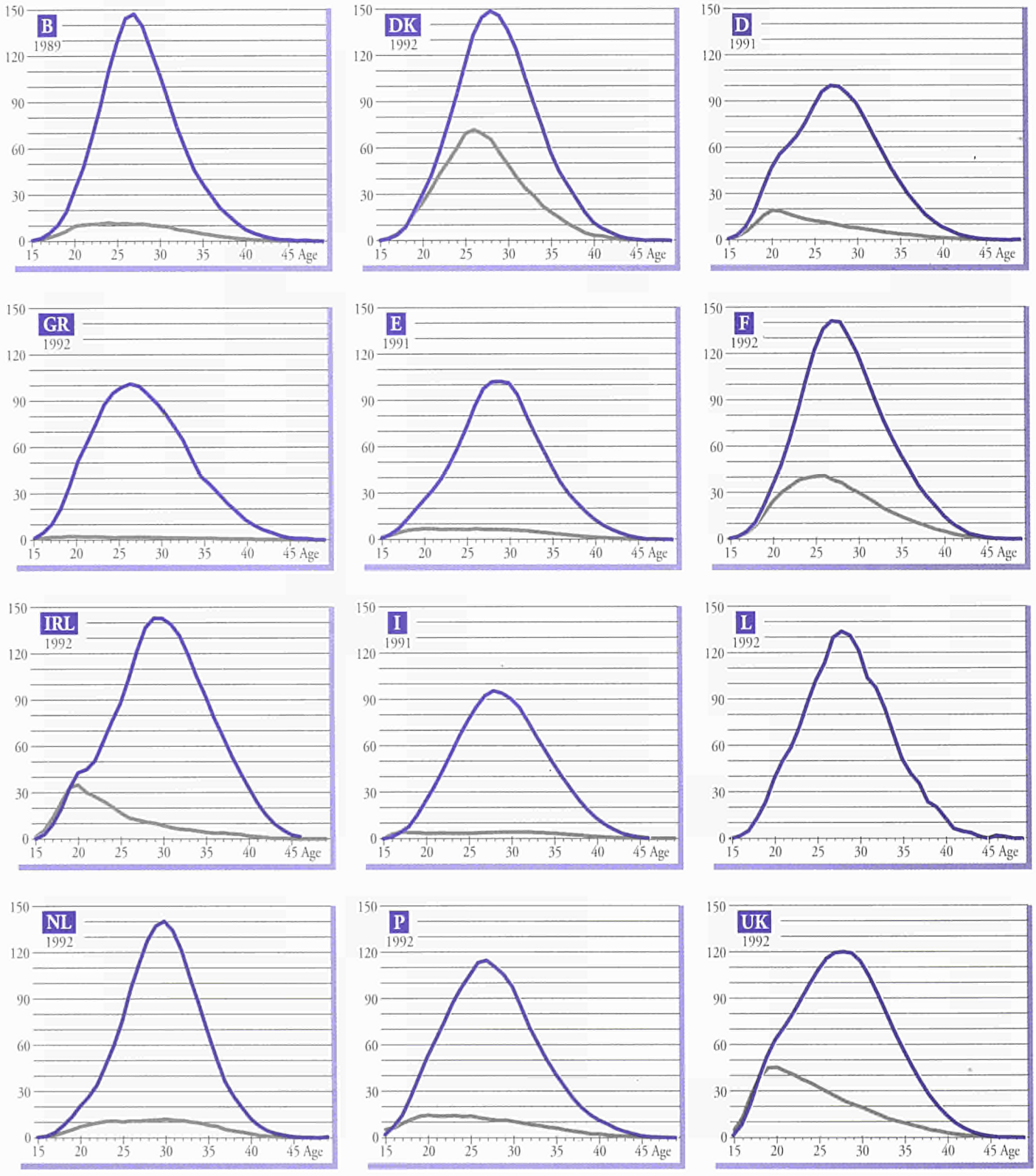
Births outside marriage per 1 000 live births

	1960	1970	1980	1992
EUR 12	**48.6**	**51.6**	**87.5**	**199.9**
B	20.7	27.7	41.2	113.1 [1]
DK	78.2	110.3	331.7	464.0
D	75.6	72.3	118.9	148.8
GR	12.4	11.1	14.6	26.4
E	23.1	13.6	39.3	100.1 [2]
F	61.0	68.6	113.8	332.1
IRL	15.9	26.5	50.3	180.4
I	24.2	21.8	42.9	67.8
L	31.7	40.1	59.7	127.2
NL	13.5	20.8	41.1	124.4
P	94.5	73.3	92.0	160.9
UK	52.2	80.4	115.2	308.3
A	130.2	127.7	177.8	252.3
FIN	40.4	58.3	130.8	288.6
IS	252.6	298.8	397.1	573.2
N	36.8	68.6	144.8	379.6
S	112.8	185.6	397.2	494.7
EEA	51.4	56.2	97.1	213.8
CH	38.3	37.8	47.5	62.2

[1] 1989 data.
[2] 1991 data.

Fertility rates by age (age reached in the calendar year of birth)
(children per 1 000 women)

General fertility rate
Extra-marital fertility rate



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POPULATION

MORTALITY

There has been a sharp fall in mortality in all the European Economic Area (EEA) countries since the end of the Second World War as a result of the decline in infant mortality prior to the 1960s, followed by a fall in the mortality of elderly persons from the 1980s.

Over the past 20 years, differences in life expectancy in the EEA countries have become less marked.

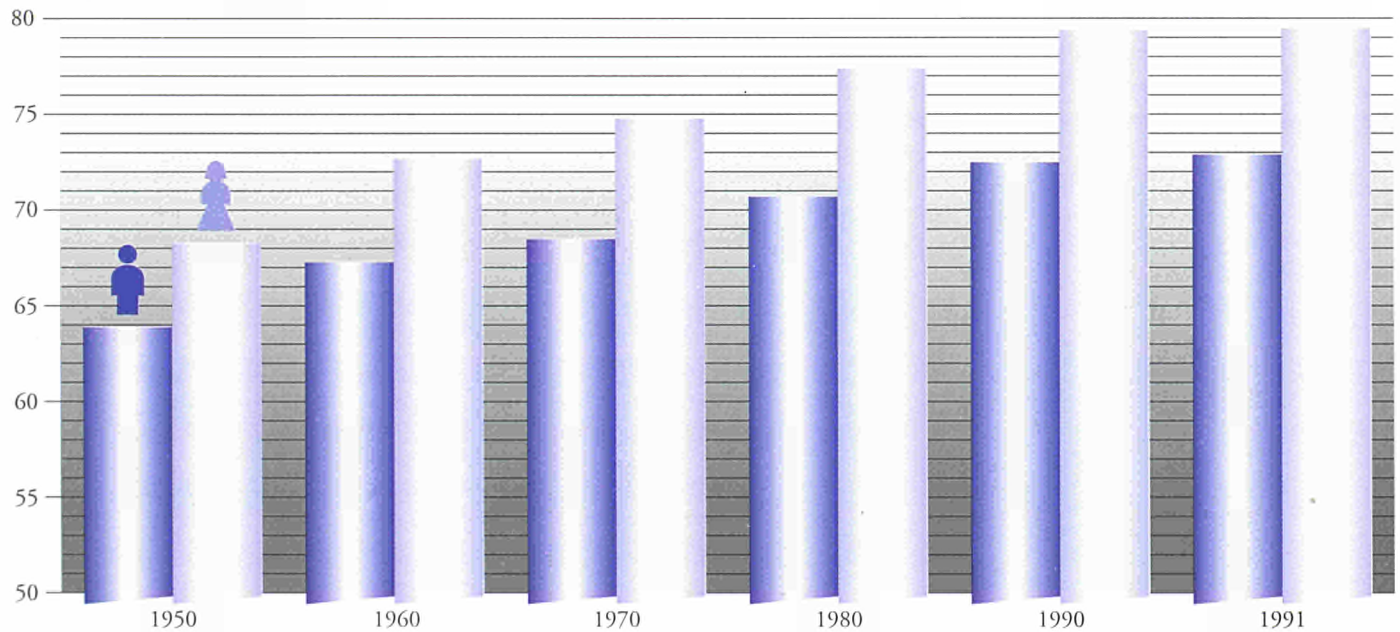
The gap between the life expectancy of men and women widened from 5.4 years in 1960 to 6.6 years in 1991.

The average age at the time of death is different for men and women. In 1992, there were twice as many women aged 85 as there were men.

Of the 20 countries with the lowest infant mortality rates in the world, seven are in the European Union.

Since 1960, the countries of northern Europe have had the lowest infant mortality rates, but the greatest progress in this direction has been made in the southern European countries.

Life expectancy at birth, EUR 12



Between 1950 and 1991, life expectancy at birth in the European Union rose by nine years for men and 11.2 years for women.

In 40 years, mortality rates have changed in three stages: a decline, followed by stagnation, followed by a further decline.

Before the 1960s, the crucial factor determining the increase in life expectancy at birth was the decline in infant mortality.

As the infant mortality rate has fallen, the mortality rate at other ages has affected the trend in life expectancy at birth.

The 1960s saw a decline in the rate at which life expectancy was increasing, due basically to an increase in the mortality of people of working age and stable rates of mortality for elderly people.

The increase at Community level in the 1950s (3.4 years for men and 4.4 for women) tailed off over the following decade, to 1.2 and 2.1 respectively. The improvement in the figures ceased earlier in countries where the level of mortality was lowest. Denmark and the Netherlands, which held the records for life expectancy during the 1950s, made modest progress in the following two decades in relation to Portugal. During the 1950s and 60s, life expectancy for women in Portugal increased by an average of 5.3 and 3.9 years respectively and for Portuguese men by 4.8 years in the 1950s and 3 years in the 1960s.

From 1970 onwards, average life expectancy rose more sharply in the southern European countries (Greece, Spain and Portugal) than in the north.

From that decade onwards — and in particular from the 1980s — the decline in mortality was increasingly due to lower death rates among elderly people. In the European Union, male life expectancy at the age of 60, which had been stable since 1950 at around 15.9 years, rose by 0.9 years in the 1970s and by 1.5 years in the 1980s. Female life expectancy at 60 rose by 1.4 years in the 1970s and by 1.5 in the 1980s.

Life expectancy at birth

(in years)

	1950		1960		1970		1980		1990		1992	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
EUR 12	**63.9**	**68.3**	**67.3**	**72.7**	**68.5**	**74.8**	**70.7**	**77.4**	**72.5**	**79.4**	**72.9** [1]	**79.5** [1]
B	62.0	67.3	67.7	73.5	67.8	74.2	70.0	76.8	72.7	79.4	73.1	79.8
DK	69.8	72.6	70.4	74.4	70.7	75.9	71.2	77.3	72.0	77.7	72.6	77.9
D	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	72.0	78.2	72.6	79.1
GR	63.4	68.5	67.3	72.4	70.1	73.8	72.2	76.9	74.5	79.5	74.6	79.8
E	59.8	64.3	67.4	72.2	69.2	74.8	72.5	78.6	73.3	80.3	73.3 [1]	80.5 [1]
F	62.9	68.5	66.9	73.6	68.4	75.9	70.2	78.4	72.7	81.0	73.2	81.4
IRL	64.5	67.1	68.1	71.9	68.8	73.5	70.1	75.6	72.0	77.5	72.6	78.1
I	63.7	67.2	67.2	72.3	69.0	74.9	70.6	77.4	73.6	80.2	73.6	80.3 [1]
L	63.4	68.2	66.5	72.2	67.1	73.4	69.1	75.9	70.6	77.9	71.9	78.4
NL	70.6	72.9	71.5	75.3	70.7	76.5	72.7	79.3	73.8	80.1	74.3	80.3
P	56.4	61.6	61.2	66.9	64.2	70.8	67.7	75.2	70.2	77.3	70.7	78.1
UK	66.2	71.2	67.9	73.7	68.7	75.0	70.2	76.2	72.9	78.5	73.2 [1]	78.6 [1]
A	61.9	67.0	66.2	72.7	66.4	73.4	69.1	76.2	72.6	79.1	72.8	79.3
FIN	60.5	67.5	65.5	72.5	66.5	75.0	69.9	78.5	70.9	78.9	71.7	79.4
IS	68.5	72.7	71.3	76.4	71.2	77.3	74.0	80.3	75.4	80.5	76.7	80.7
FL	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
N	70.2	73.5	71.1	75.9	71.3	77.7	72.7	79.6	73.4	79.8	74.2	80.3
S	69.1	72.3	71.5	75.5	72.2	77.7	73.4	79.6	74.8	80.4	75.4	80.8
EEA	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	73.0	79.5	:	:
CH	66.3	70.5	68.7	74.5	70.7	76.9	72.8	79.6	74.0	80.7	74.5	81.3

[1] Data from 1991.

As regards life expectancy, geographical differences became less noticeable between 1950 and 1992.

The increases in life expectancy were largest in the southern countries (Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal) and in Austria and Finland. In terms of life expectancy at birth, Finland, which initially was lagging behind its Scandinavian neighbours, has almost caught them up.

The difference between life expectancy at birth in the Netherlands and in Portugal was 14.2 years in 1950 and 3.6 years in 1992 for men and 11.3 years in 1950 and 2.2 years in 1992 for women.

The gap between male and female life expectancy has widened over the past few decades.

This is due to the substantial headway made by women in terms of life expectancy at birth. However, in some countries where female life expectancy was already very high — the Netherlands and the Scandinavian countries — this tendency is changing. With male life expectancy currently improving at a greater rate than female, the gap is narrowing.

In 1992, there were twice as many women aged 85 than men.

For a long time, this 'biological superiority' was masked by the fact that women ran risks connected with childbearing. With falling birth rates and improvements in obstetrics, these risks have gradually disappeared. On the other hand, men are at greater risk of violent death, are more likely to indulge in habits harmful to their health (alcohol, tobacco, etc.) and are more likely to have dangerous jobs.

This female 'mortality deficit' increases the number of older women. In all the EEA countries, there are roughly 105 boys born for every 100 girls.

Although mortality is higher at every age for men, there are equal numbers of men and women around the age of 50. After that, there is a steady fall in the ratio of men to women.

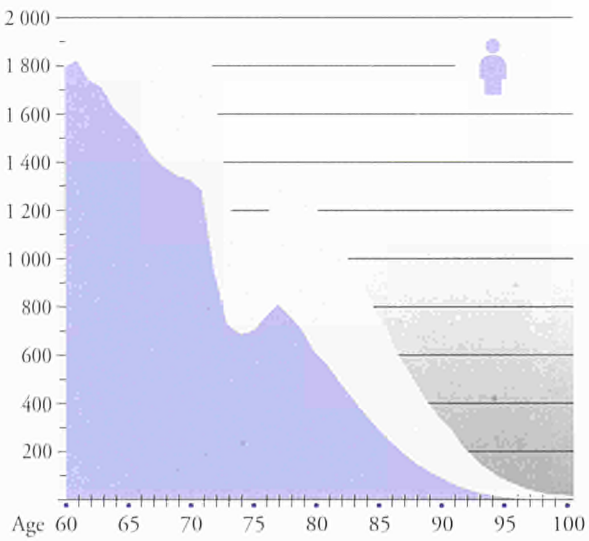
Gap between male and female life expectancy

(in years)

	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	1992
EUR 12	**:**	**5.4**	**6.3**	**6.7**	**6.9**	**6.6** [1]
B	5.2	5.8	6.4	6.8	6.7	6.7
DK	2.8	4.0	5.2	6.1	5.7	5.3
D	:	:	:	:	6.2	6.5
GR	5.0	5.1	3.7	4.7	5.0	5.2 [1]
E	4.5	4.8	5.5	6.1	7.0	7.2
F	5.6	6.7	7.5	8.2	8.3	8.2
IRL	2.6	3.7	4.8	5.5	5.5	5.5
I	3.5	5.1	5.9	6.8	6.6	6.7
L	4.8	5.7	6.3	6.8	7.3	6.5
NL	2.3	3.8	5.8	6.6	6.3	6.0
P	5.2	5.6	6.5	7.5	7.1	7.4
UK	5.0	5.8	6.3	6.0	5.6	5.4
A	5.1	6.5	7.0	7.1	6.5	6.5
FIN	7.0	7.0	8.5	8.6	8.0	7.7
IS	4.2	5.1	6.1	6.3	5.1	4.0
FL	:	:	:	:	:	:
N	3.3	4.8	6.4	6.9	6.4	6.1
S	3.2	4.0	5.5	6.2	5.6	5.4
EEA	:	:	:	:	6.5	:
CH	4.2	5.8	6.2	6.8	6.7	6.8

[1] 1991 data.

Population aged over 60, 1 January 1992, EUR 12 (in thousands)



At any age, more men die than women.

In 1992, the difference in the life expectancy of men and women varied in all EEA countries, from 4 years in Iceland to 8.2 years in France.

The difference between average lengths of life gives, however, only a very rough idea of differences in mortality by sex. Age is a very important factor here.

Although the probability of dying shows the same trend at all ages for both sexes, it is more marked for men from the earliest age.

The ratio of male to female probabilities of death is in every case above 1, with two maxima, one between the ages of 20 and 25 and the other between the ages of 55 and 65.

For men, the probability of dying at the age of around 20 is over three times as high as for women.

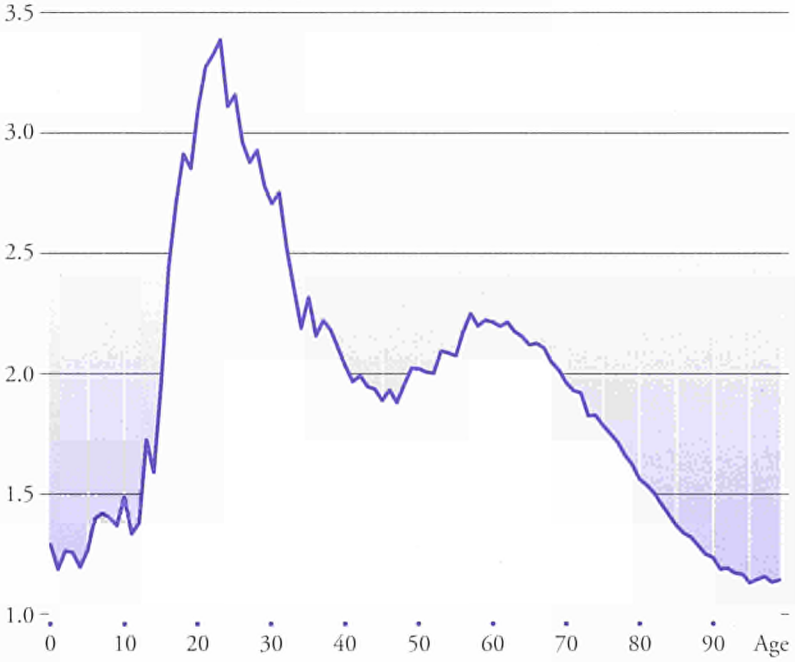
The main reason for this is violent death through road accidents and suicide. The excess male mortality around the age of 60, on the other hand, is due in part to circulatory and respiratory diseases.

If the European Union were one country, it would be one of the 20 countries with the lowest infant mortality rates in the world.

The infant mortality rate is a valid indicator of the state of health of the population of a given country. It reflects the efficiency of its preventive care system and the attention paid to the health of the mother and her child.

Some 13 of the 20 countries in the world with the lowest infant mortality rates are in the European Economic Area, seven of them in the European Union. In this classification, the Community of Twelve would be in 20th position.

Excess male mortality by age, 1991, EUR 12



The 20 countries with the lowest infant mortality rates in the world, 1992

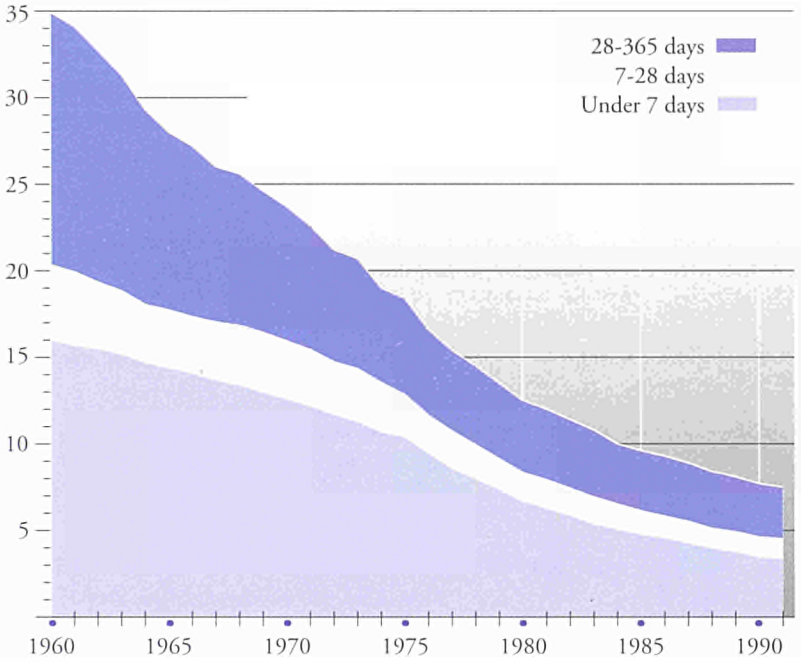
1	Japan	4.4 [1]
2	Iceland	4.8
3	Singapore	5.0
4	Finland	5.2
5	Sweden	5.3
6	Norway	5.8
7	Federal Republic of Germany	6.2
8	Netherlands	6.3
9	Hong Kong	6.4 [1]
10	Switzerland	6.4
11	Denmark	6.6
12	Ireland	6.7
13	Canada	6.8 [2]
14	France	6.8
15	Belgium	6.9
16	Australia	7.1 [2]
17	New Zealand	7.3
18	United Kingdom	7.4 [1]
19	Austria	7.5
20	EUR 12	7.5 [1]

[1] 1991 data.
[2] 1990 data.

There was an enormous decline in infant mortality between 1960 and 1992 in all the EEA countries, especially the southern ones.

In 1992, the infant mortality rate was a mere fifth of its 1960 level. By 1992, all the EEA countries had fallen below the 10‰ mark. Although the northern countries still had the lowest infant mortality over that period, the southern countries (Spain, Greece, Italy and Portugal) made the most remarkable progress. Thus between 1960 and 1992, the rate of infant mortality in Iceland fell by a factor of three, compared with a factor of almost eight in Portugal over the same period.

Infant mortality, EUR 12
(per 1 000 live births)



Almost half of deaths during the first year of life occurred during the first week.

Deaths in the first week, like still-births, are due mainly to congenital malformation and injuries during pregnancy or birth.

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POPULATION

MIGRATION

Almost 96% of the total population of the European Economic Area (EEA) comprises persons resident in the country whose citizenship they hold.

The other 4% are either citizens of one EEA country living in another, or non-EEA nationals resident in an EEA country.

The proportion of workers resident in the EEA is roughly the same, i.e. fewer than 10% are non-nationals except in Luxembourg, where citizens of another Member State of the European Union make up 30% of the working population.

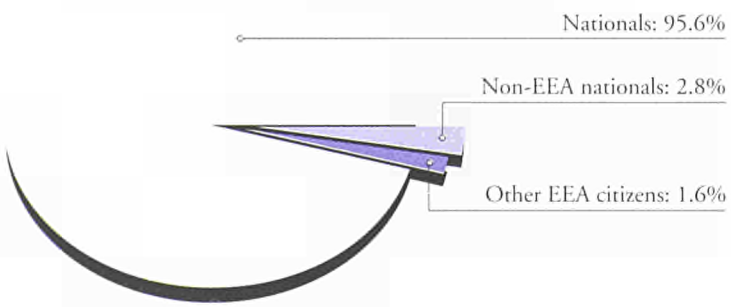
Employment structures are different for nationals and non-nationals, with the highest percentage of non-nationals in the industrial sector.

Migratory flows to and from Germany account for the largest share of population movements in the EEA.

In all countries, a major share of flows of both immigrants and emigrants involve nationals.

In 1991, most asylum seekers were from European countries.

Population of the EEA by group, 1 January 1991



The population of the European Economic Area may be subdivided into three groups:

nationals, i.e. citizens of one of the EEA countries who are resident in their own country;

other EEA citizens, i.e. citizens of one EEA country resident in another;

non-EEA nationals, i.e. nationals of non-EEA countries resident in the EEA.

The last two groups are ***non-nationals.***

Between 1990 and 1991, the number of non-nationals increased.

During the 1980s, the total number of non-EEA nationals (between eight and nine million) remained relatively stable. There was no change in each group's share of the total population. The number of citizens of other EEA countries (approximately five million) also remained steady, with the proportion still very low: 1.6% for citizens of other EEA countries and 2.8% for non-EEA nationals.

It is only over the last two years that numbers in these two categories have been rising, basically because of the immigration into the EEA. This is partly the result of the political events in Europe and changing family structures.

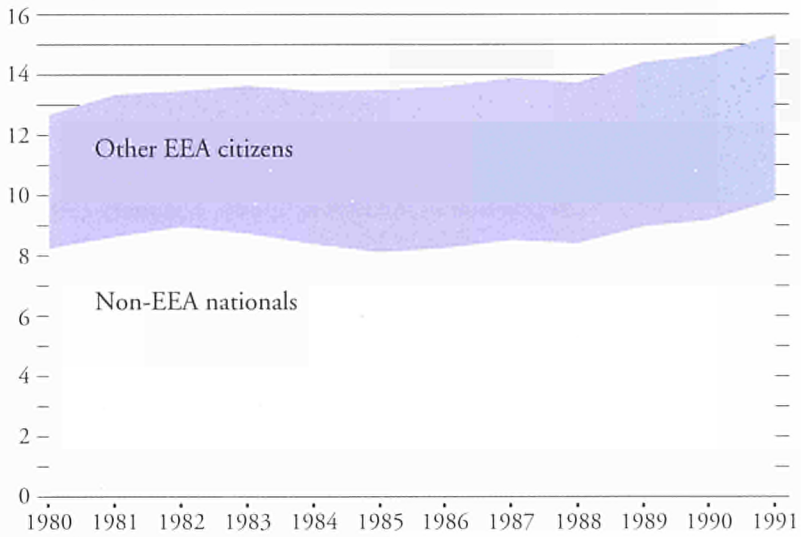
Citizenship is legally defined in every country. The conditions governing qualification for citizenship vary from one country to the next.

The highest proportions of non-nationals are in Luxembourg and Liechtenstein.

In Belgium, Spain, Ireland, Luxembourg, Iceland and Switzerland, the majority of non-nationals are EEA citizens. In Ireland, the majority are UK citizens. Liechtenstein, Austria, Germany and France have the highest percentages of non-EEA nationals. Several countries, such as Finland, Italy, Portugal and Greece, have a very low percentage of foreign residents.

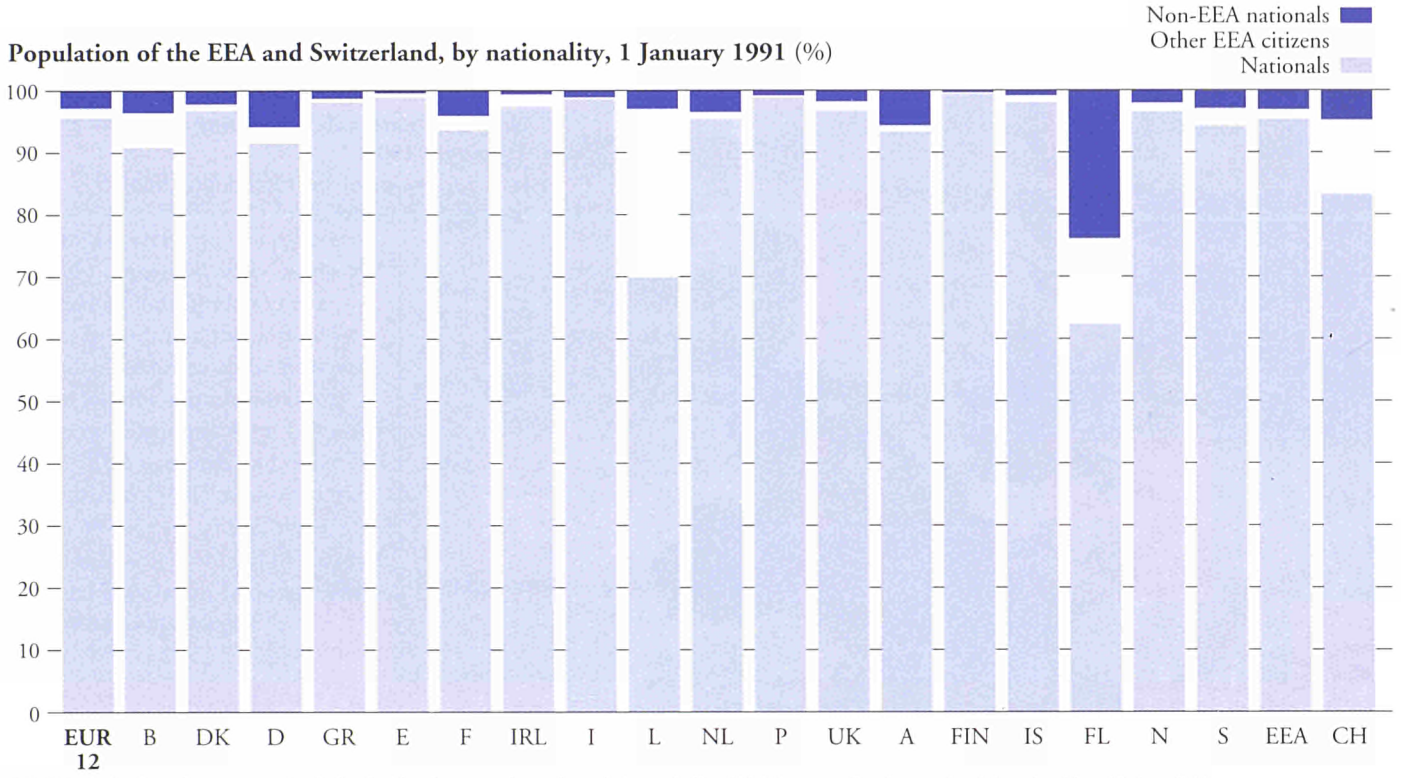
As at 1 January 1991, the former German Democratic Republic had a population of over 16 million German citizens, with a non-national population of only just over 175 000.

Non-nationals in the EEA, 1980-91, (all countries taken together)
(million)



NB: Residents whose status is irregular are not included.
Source: Eurostat estimates.

Population of the EEA and Switzerland, by nationality, 1 January 1991 (%)



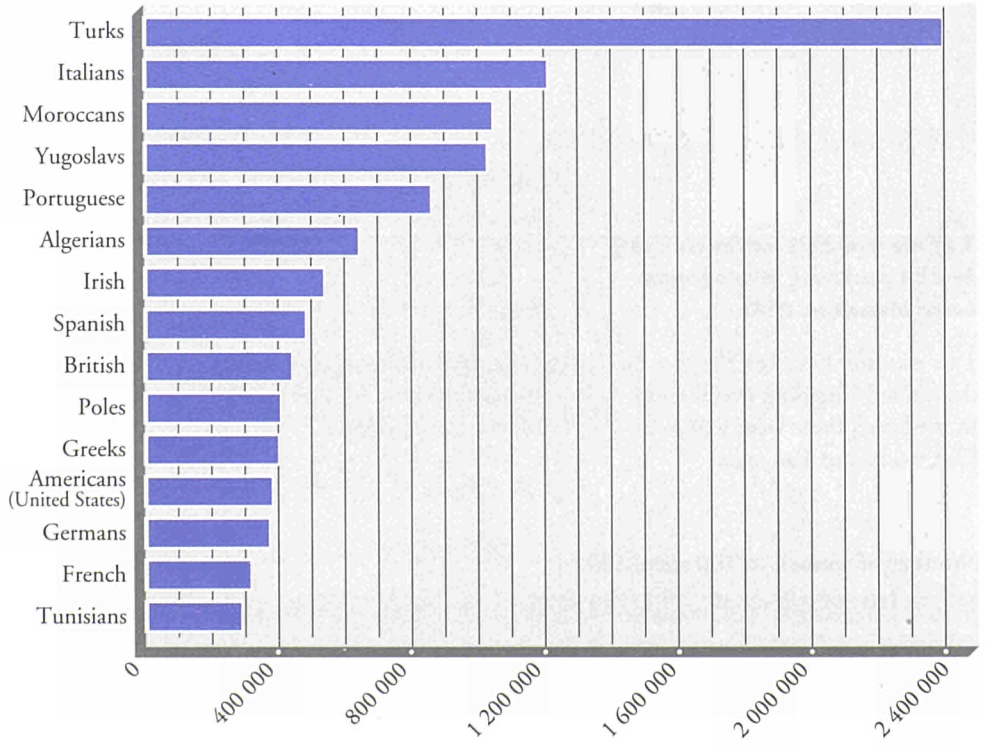
NB: United Kingdom: the percentage is calculated with reference to the total population excluding 624 000 persons for whom no breakdown by citizenship is available.

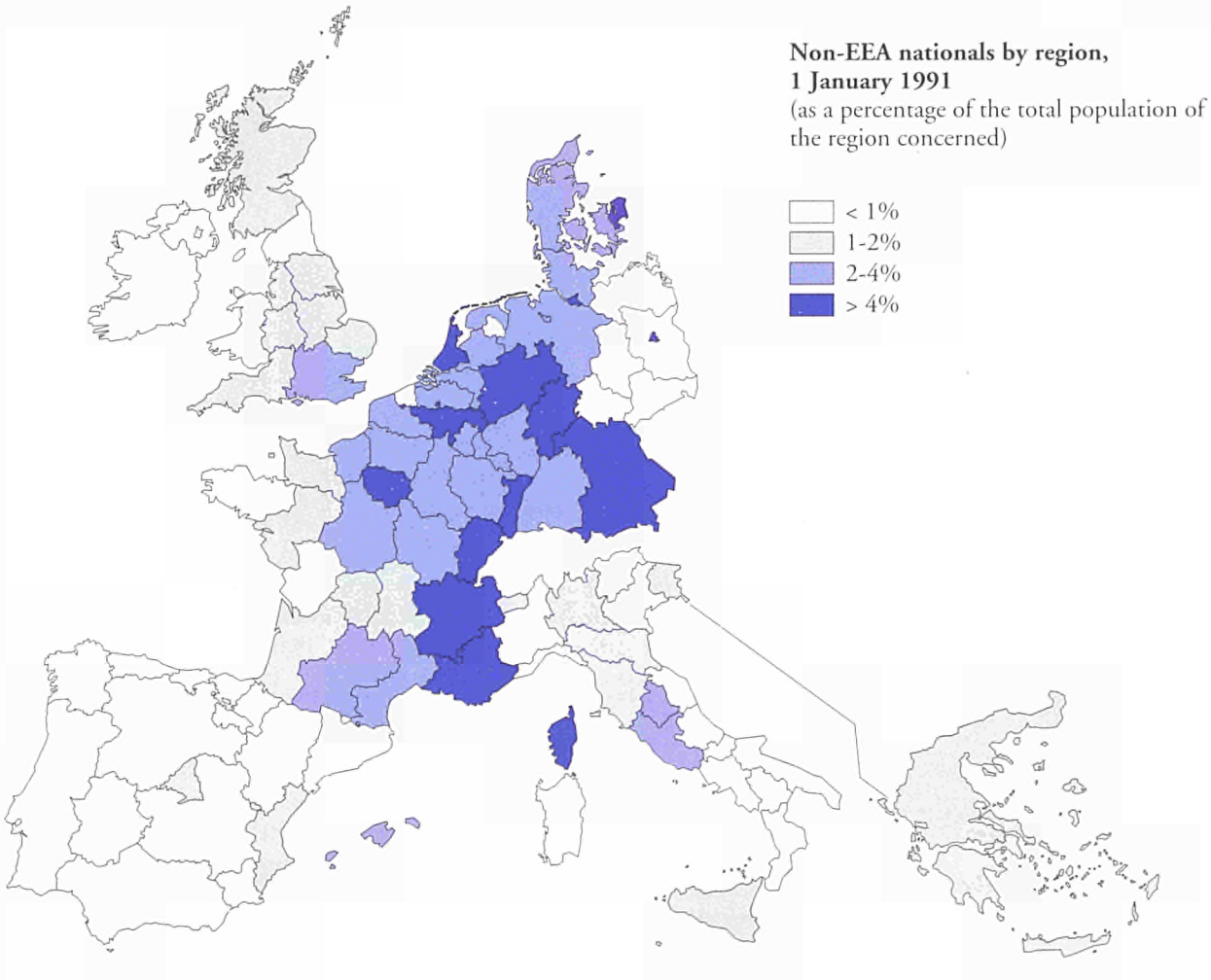
Turkish nationals make up the largest group of non-nationals in the EEA.

In 1991, there were more than 2.3 million Turks, mostly in Germany.

Italians are in second position, with almost 1.2 million, followed by Moroccans and Yugoslavs (approximately 1 million).

Non-nationals in the EEA, 1 January 1991





Of the non-EEA nationals living in EEA countries, men outnumbered women in 1991.

This was not, however, the case in the United Kingdom and Iceland. In the latter, there were 120 non-EEA women to 100 men.

In Italy, men greatly outnumbered women in the non-EEA population (100 men to 63 women).

Number of women to 100 men, 1991

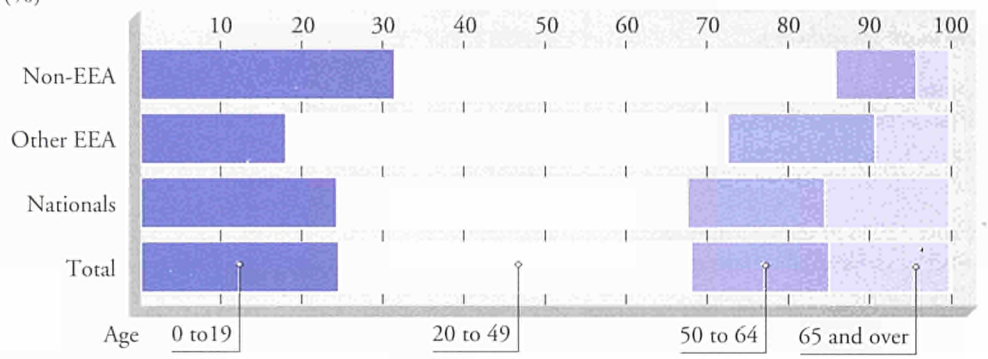
	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	A	FIN	IS	FL	N	S	EEA	CH
Other EEA	:	85	92	78	122	:	88	100	137	99	81	87	125	107	63	137	:	96	98	:	79
Non-EEA	:	86	86	77	83	:	78	94	63	98	82	72	100	72	92	120	:	80	95	:	79
Nationals	**106**	107	103	110	103	104	107	100	106	106	103	108	104	110	106	99	:	103	103	:	111
Total	:	105	103	107	103	:	106	100	106	104	102	107	105	108	106	99	:	102	102	:	105

There are many more elderly people among nationals than among non-EEA nationals.

Since the proportion of the total population accounted for by foreign nationals is very low, this difference has only a marginal effect on the age structure of the population as a whole. In addition, the data cover only nine countries of the European Union and three countries of the European Economic Area. Over half of non-EEA nationals and other EEA citizens (54%) come into the 20- to 49-year age group, but a lower proportion of nationals and of the total population (around 40%) falls into this age range.

Population of the EEA by nationality and by age, 1 January 1991

(%)

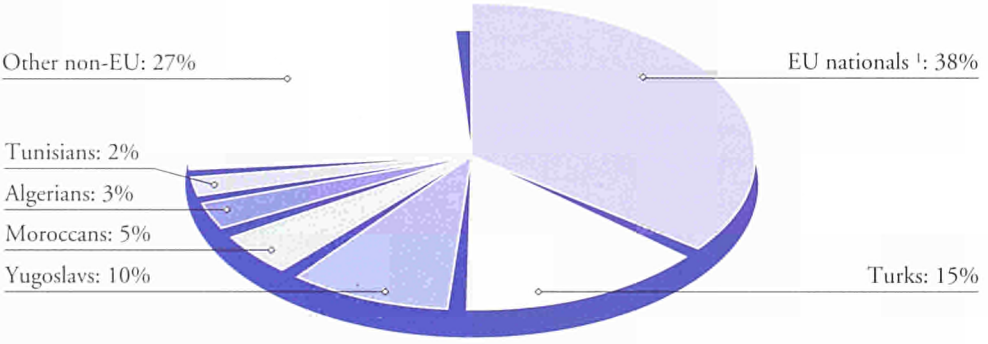


NB: Greece, Spain, Portugal, Finland, Iceland and Liechtenstein: data not available.
Source: Eurostat estimates.

Some 62% of non-national workers resident in the EEA are non-EU nationals.

Workers from Turkey, Yugoslavia, Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia account for 35% of non-EU nationals, whilst 38% of workers are from European Union countries.

Foreign workers in the EEA, by nationality, 1 January 1991



NB: Belgium and France: 1989 data; Iceland and Liechtenstein: data not available.
[1] Includes Austrian, Finnish, Icelandic, Liechtenstein, Norwegian and Swedish employees who are not working in their own country.

There is a large number of non-nationals employed in Luxembourg, owing to the high percentage of foreign nationals in its working population.

One third of workers in Luxembourg are non-nationals, most of them citizens of other European Union countries. In no other country does the share of foreign workers exceed 5%. The lowest figures are in Spain, Portugal, Greece, Finland, Denmark, Ireland and Norway.

Workers by nationality, 1991

(%)

	Non-EU	Other EU	Nationals
B	1.8	4.8	93.4
DK	1.5	0.5	97.9
D	6.1	2.8	91.1
GR	1.1	0.2	98.7
E	0.2	0.2	99.6
F	3.0	3.0	94.0
IRL	0.6	2.2	97.2
I	:	:	:
L	2.1	31.8	65.7
NL	1.9	1.4	96.8
P	0.4	0.2	99.3
UK	1.6	1.5	96.0
A	6.2 [1]	2.7 [1]	91.1
FIN	1.4	0.2	98.3
IS	:	:	:
FL	:	:	:
N	0.8	1.1	97.0
S	3.9	0.9	95.3

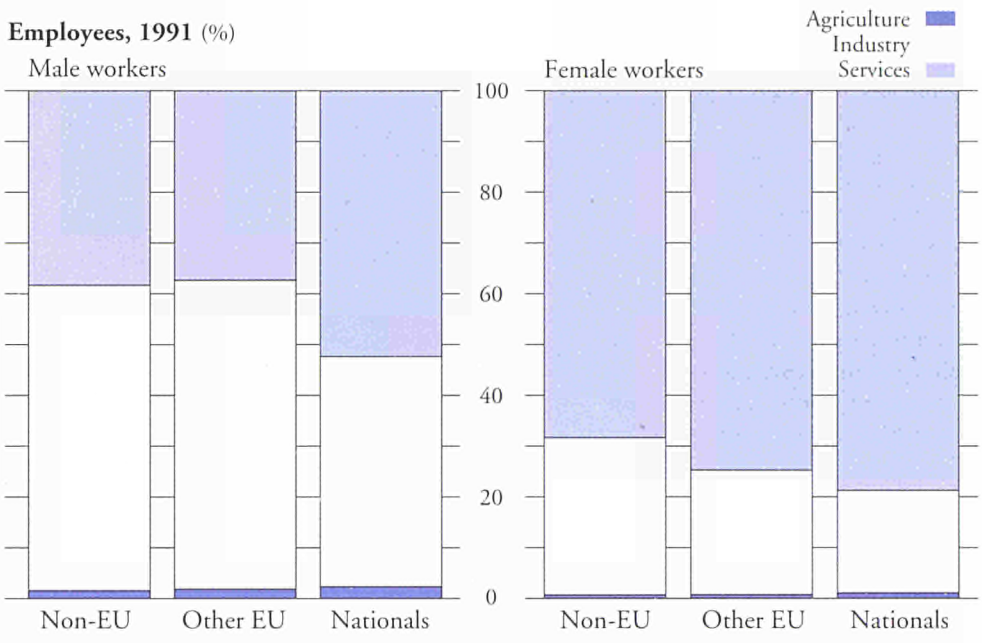
[1] Eurostat estimates.

In the European Union as a whole, over 45% of male employees work in industry.

Of these, non-nationals make up the greatest share, comprising 61% EU nationals and 60% non-EU nationals.

Almost 80% of female employees work in services, and nationals are predominant.

Employees, 1991 (%)

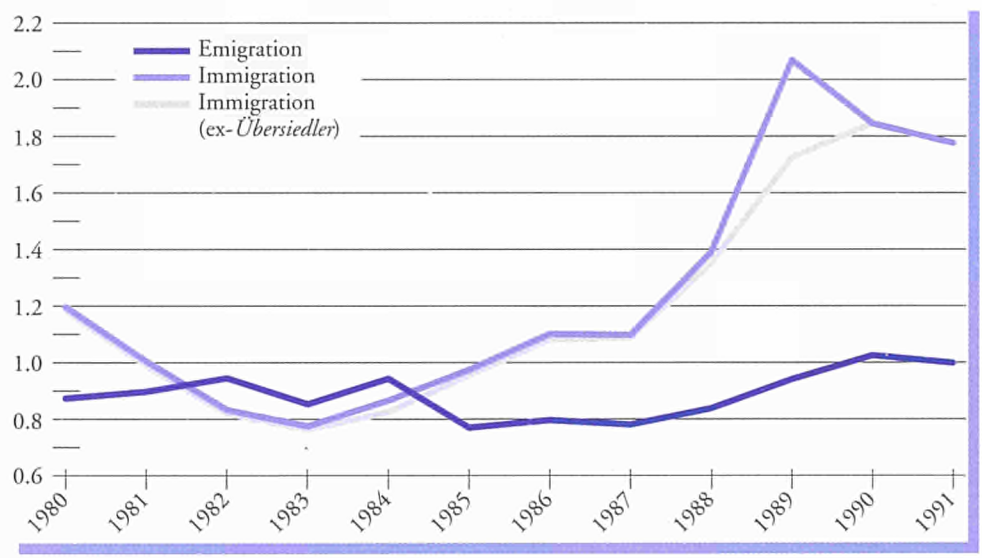


Emigration has remained stable and immigration increased in nine EEA countries.

The total number of persons leaving Belgium, Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden has remained stable since 1980, whereas numbers of immigrants moving to those countries rose rapidly over the same decade, particularly between 1987 and 1989.

Prior to 1990, some half a million people of German origin emigrated to Germany from the German Democratic Republic (*Übersiedler*) and Eastern Europe (*Aussiedler*).

Immigration and emigration: a selection of EEA countries, 1980-91
(million)



NB: Countries include Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Netherlands, United Kingdom, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden.

'Aussiedler' are German citizens and persons of German origin emigrating from the east and the south-east of Europe to settle in Germany.

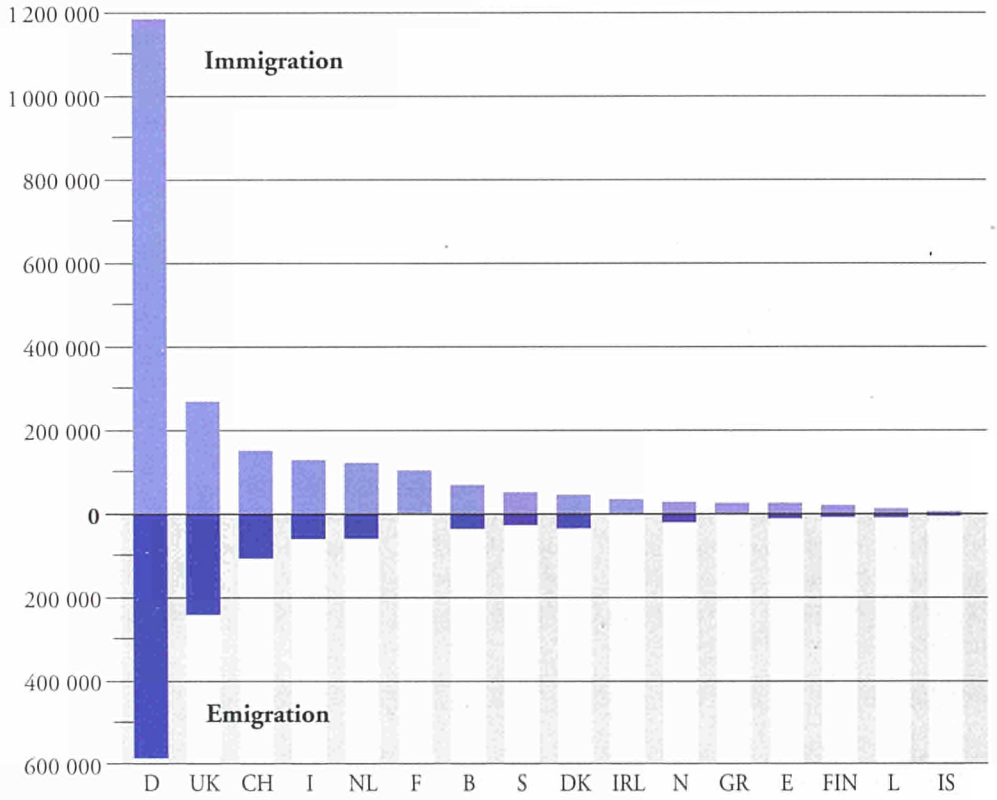
'Übersiedler' are German citizens and persons of German origin who immigrated from East Germany to West Germany prior to October 1989.

Germany has the largest flows of both immigration and emigration.

In 1991, Germany received almost half of the total number of persons immigrating to the EEA countries and almost half of the emigrants from the EEA countries came from Germany. This was partly the consequence of its geographical position and size. Germany naturally attracts migrants from Eastern Europe, in particular those of German origin.

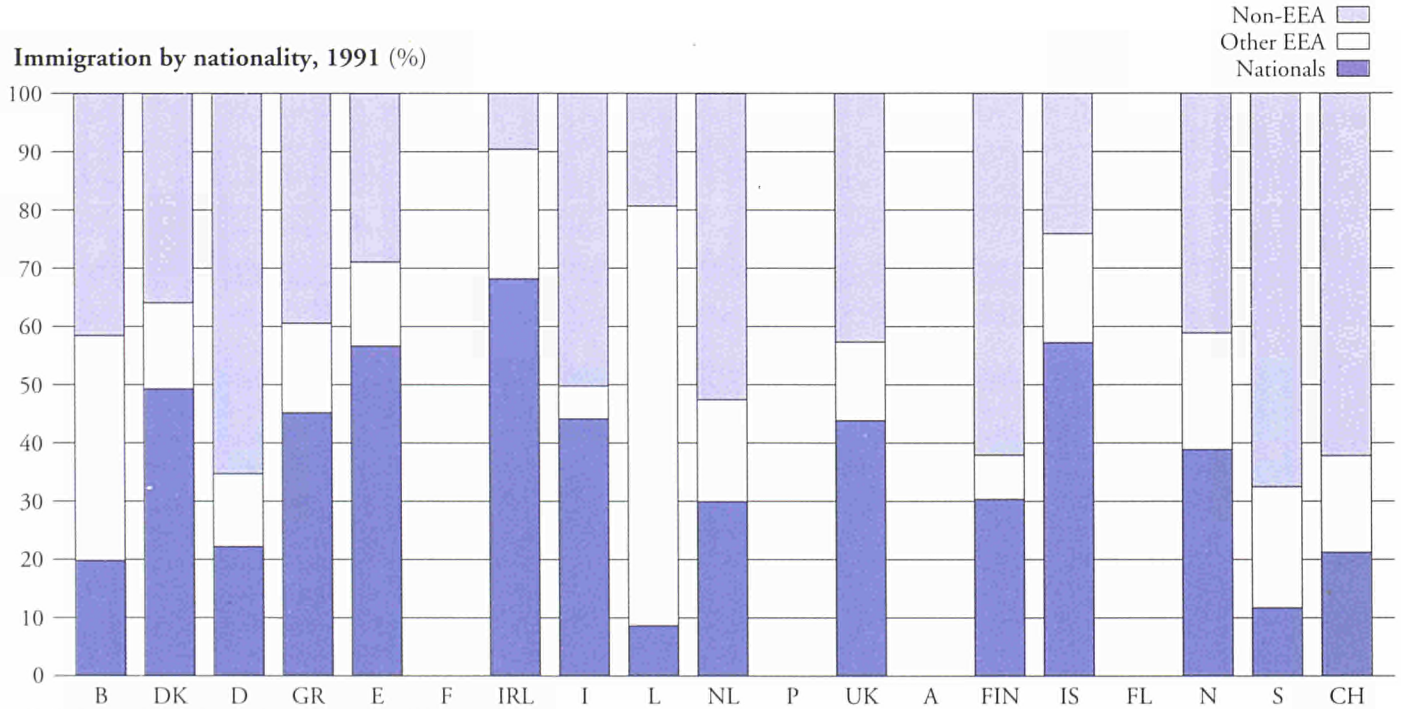
The figures for immigration and emigration refer to legal migrants. Illegal immigration is not included in the analysis.

Total immigration and emigration, 1991



NB: No data available for Austria, Liechtenstein or Portugal.

Immigration by nationality, 1991 (%)



NB: No data available for France, Portugal, Austria and Liechtenstein.

Nationals account for a large percentage of immigration.

Half or more than half of immigrants into Ireland, Iceland, Spain and Denmark are nationals returning to their own country. In Greece, Italy, the United Kingdom and Norway, over 40% of immigrants are returning nationals.

In Luxembourg and Belgium, most immigrants (in relative terms) are citizens of another EEA country.

In Germany and Sweden, on the other hand, over 65% of immigrants are non-EEA nationals. Over half of immigrants settling in Luxembourg are citizens of another EEA country.

Many non-EEA migrants are citizens of another European country.

The high figures in both numerical and percentage terms of non-EEA immigrants settling in Germany, for example, are accounted for by Yugoslavs, Poles and Turks.

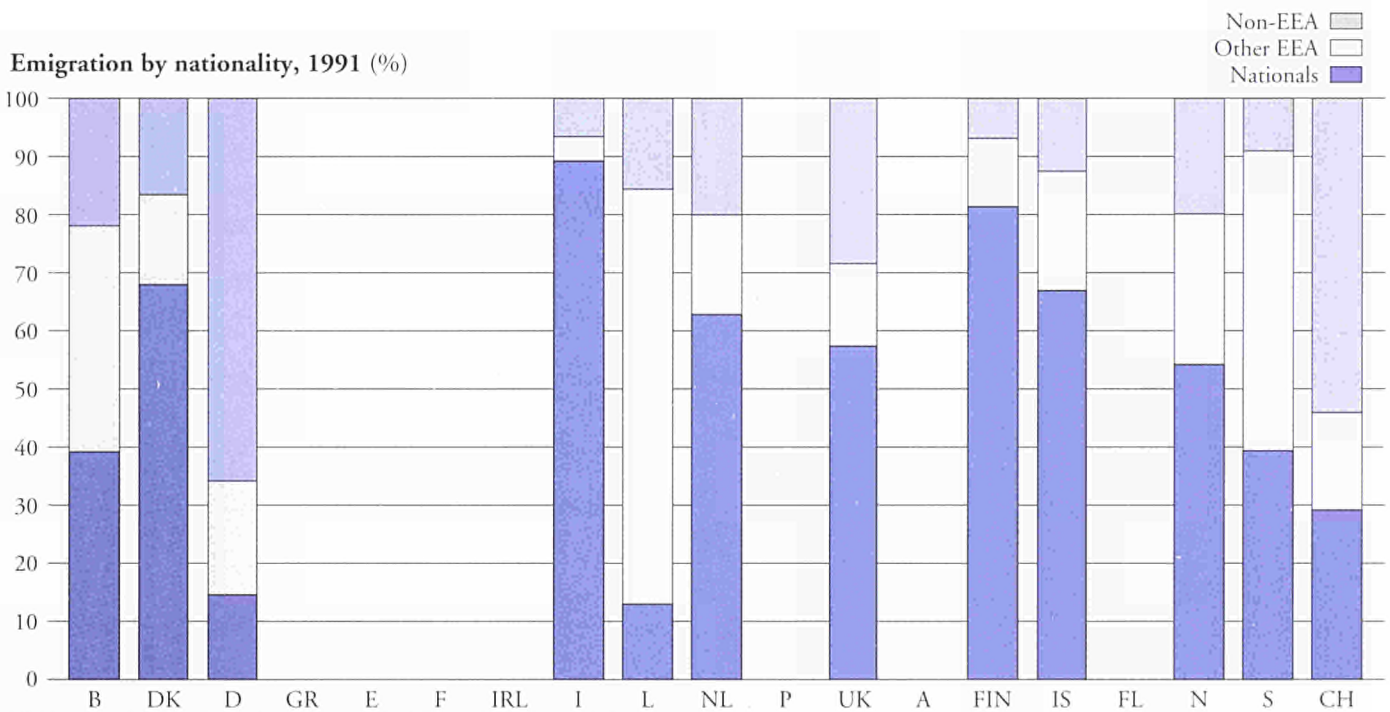
In many countries, the majority of emigrants are nationals.

This category accounts for almost 90% of emigration in the case of Italy, over 80% for Finland and roughly 65% for Denmark, Iceland and the Netherlands.

Some 70 % of emigrants from Luxembourg are citizens of another EEA country.

The largest relative share of emigrants from Luxembourg and Sweden are citizens of another EEA country, whilst more than 65% of emigrants from Germany are non-EEA nationals. Over half of non-national emigrants from Sweden, Luxembourg, Belgium, Finland, Iceland and Norway are citizens of another EEA country.

Emigration by nationality, 1991 (%)



NB: No data available for Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Portugal, Austria and Liechtenstein.

In 1990, some 600 000 persons left one Member State to settle in another.

According to a study commissioned by Eurostat, emigrants tend to move towards the centre of the European Union.

Portugal and Greece still have the highest levels of emigration.

Italy and Spain, which for decades had high levels of emigration, are currently witnessing the return of a number of persons who emigrated at the start of the 1980s.

According to the study, the mildness of the southern climate attracts retired people from the countries in the north of the European Union.

A study commissioned by Eurostat on international migration between the countries of the European Union in 1990 produced a matrix of flows based on estimates provided by the Member States. These matrix figures do not reflect all migration because they exclude movements to and from countries outside the European Union.

Migrations by nationality (EEA and Switzerland), 1991

(in thousands)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	A	FIN	IS	FL	N	S	CH
Immigration																			
Total	**67.5**	**43.6**	**1 182.9**	**24.3**	**24.3**	**:**	**33.3**	**126.9**	**10.9**	**120.2**	**:**	**267.0**	**:**	**19.0**	**4.0**	**:**	**26.3**	**49.7**	**149.5**
Of which																			
Nationals	13.3	21.4	262.4	11.0	13.8	:	22.7	56.0	0.9	35.9	:	117.0	:	5.8	2.3	:	10.2	5.8	31.7
Other EEA	26.1	6.5	148.2	3.7	3.5	10.9	7.4	7.2	7.9	21.0	:	36.0	:	1.4	0.7	:	5.3	10.3	24.8
Non-EEA	28.1	15.7	772.3	9.6	7.0	91.2	3.2	63.8	2.1	63.3	:	114.0	:	11.8	1.0	:	10.8	33.6	93.0
Emigration																			
Total	**33.8**	**32.6**	**582.2**	**:**	**:**	**:**	**:**	**57.7**	**6.7**	**57.3**	**:**	**239.0**	**:**	**6.0**	**3.0**	**:**	**18.2**	**24.7**	**104.3**
Of which																			
Nationals	13.2	22.2	84.8	:	9.1	:	:	51.5	0.9	36.0	:	137.0	:	4.9	2.0	:	9.9	9.7	30.4
Other EEA	13.1	5.0	114.1	:	:	:	:	2.5	4.8	9.9	:	34.0	:	0.7	0.6	:	4.7	12.8	17.5
Non-EEA	7.4	5.4	383.4	:	:	:	:	3.8	1.1	11.5	:	68.0	:	0.4	0.4	:	3.6	2.2	56.4

Estimate of migratory flows between the countries of the European Union, 1990

(in thousands)

Country of immigration	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
EUR 12	**600.8**	**40.8**	**8.3**	**145.2**	**22.5**	**42.8**	**85.9**	**25.3**	**59.0**	**20.7**	**32.3**	**12.4**	**105.3**
Country of emigration													
B	36.8	–	0.3	4.5	0.7	2.0	12.9	0.2	2.2	2.3	5.5	0.9	5.2
DK	11.0	0.5	–	3.1	0.2	0.7	1.3	0.1	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.1	3.7
D	117.3	4.4	2.1	–	15.8	10.6	15.1	2.7	34.7	1.0	9.8	3.9	17.3
GR	37.1	1.1	0.2	29.3	–	0.1	2.1	0.0	1.7	0.2	0.9	0.0	1.5
E	35.7	2.5	0.7	8.6	0.2	–	3.5	0.6	2.5	0.2	2.4	1.2	13.4
F	89.1	12.6	0.8	18.2	2.9	14.2	–	1.5	10.8	3.2	3.1	1.5	20.3
IRL	45.0	0.4	0.1	4.1	0.3	0.2	3.5	–	0.5	0.1	0.6	0.1	35.0
I	64.0	2.9	0.5	38.9	1.1	1.6	11.4	0.1	–	2.5	1.5	0.3	3.2
L	8.4	1.6	0.1	1.1	0.1	0.2	1.9	0.1	0.6	–	0.2	2.3	0.4
NL	30.5	7.1	0.4	9.8	0.6	2.3	3.1	0.5	1.1	0.3	–	0.7	4.5
P	37.1	2.6	0.1	8.3	0.1	2.4	11.5	0.0	0.6	9.6	0.9	–	0.7
UK	88.8	5.1	2.8	19.5	0.5	8.7	19.7	19.6	3.8	1.0	6.9	1.3	–

The majority of asylum-seekers are citizens of a European country.

In 1991, at least 180 000 citizens of the former Yugoslavia and over 100 000 citizens of Romania sought asylum in EEA countries, almost 30% of them in Germany. They represented 40% of the 250 000 asylum-seekers in that country.

In almost all EEA countries that provided figures, most new asylum-seekers in 1991 were ex-Yugoslavs, except in the United Kingdom, where most were African. In Belgium and France, the proportion of asylum-seekers from Europe and Africa were identical. In France, however, the most numerous group, accounting for 20% of the 50 000 asylum-seekers, had Turkish nationality.

Persons applying for refugee status are called asylum-seekers pending a decision.

Owing to a lack of figures for some countries and differences in the way statistics are produced on asylum-seekers and refugees, it is not possible to give a figure for the total number of refugees in the EEA. For the same reasons, the figures are not comparable from one country to another.

Most people who obtained refugee status in 1991 were Asiatic.

This was the case in Belgium, Denmark, France, the United Kingdom and Sweden.

In Italy and Austria, most were Europeans, whereas in the Netherlands most belonged to the 'Stateless and unknown' category. In France, over 70% of new refugees were citizens of Sri Lanka or Vietnam and in Sweden 30% were Iraqis and Iranians.

Asylum-seekers by nationality (EEA and Switzerland), 1991

(in thousands)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	A	FIN	IS	FL	N	S	CH
Total	**15.4**	**4.6**	**256.1**	**2.2**	**8.1**	**47.4**	**:**	**15.6**	**:**	**21.6**	**0.2**	**44.8**	**27.3**	**:**	**:**	**:**	**:**	**:**	**41.3**
Europe	6.0	1.3	166.7	0.2	2.5	15.0	:	14.6	:	8.0	0.1	3.7	19.2	:	:	:	:	16.7	21.7
Africa	6.0	0.6	36.1	0.2	2.3	16.5	:	0.8	:	4.9	0.1	27.5	1.9	:	:	:	:	1.9	5.5
America	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.0	2.1	1.1	:	0.0	:	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.0	:	:	:	:	0.5	0.1
Asia	3.3	2.1	50.6	1.8	0.4	14.7	:	0.2	:	7.8	0.0	13.0	6.1	:	:	:	:	4.2	12.4
Australia and Oceania	–	–	–	–	–	–	:	–	:	–	–	–	–	:	:	:	:	–	0.0
Stateless and unknown	0.0	0.6	2.5	0.0	:	0.1	:	0.0	:	0.2	–	0.4	0.1	:	:	:	:	0.6	0.0

NB: Spain: includes refugees; France: dependent children are excluded, as are some partners accompanying asylum-seekers; Italy: the data refer not to the total number of asylum-seekers but to those accepted following a preliminary selection procedure; United Kingdom: provisional data; Europe includes the former Soviet Union, Turkey and Cyprus.

Refugees by nationality (EEA and Switzerland), 1991

(in thousands)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	A	FIN	IS	FL	N	S	CH
Total	**0.2**	**4.0**	**:**	**:**	**:**	**15.5**	**:**	**8.1**	**:**	**2.7**	**:**	**0.5**	**2.5**	**:**	**:**	**:**	**:**	**18.7**	**27.7**
Europe	0.0	0.1	:	:	:	3.6	:	5.3	:	0.3	:	0.1	1.5	:	:	:	:	3.6	13.2
Africa	0.1	0.6	:	:	:	2.3	:	2.0	:	0.3	:	0.2	0.0	:	:	:	:	4.0	0.8
America	0.0	0.0	:	:	:	0.5	:	0.1	:	0.1	:	0.0	0.0	:	:	:	:	0.9	1.5
Asia	0.1	2.2	:	:	:	9.1	:	0.7	:	0.8	:	0.2	0.9	:	:	:	:	9.0	12.0
Australia and Oceania	–	–	:	:	:	–	:	–	:	–	:	–	–	:	:	:	:	–	–
Stateless and unknown	–	1.1	:	:	:	–	:	–	:	1.1	:	–	–	:	:	:	:	1.2	0.2

NB: Belgium: the data refer to the year of the application and not to the year of the decision; Denmark: invited refugees are also included; Germany: the data refer solely to the initial decision; Netherlands: persons are included who are granted refugee status for humanitarian reasons; United Kingdom: provisional data; Europe includes the former Soviet Union, Turkey and Cyprus.

The legal basis for the international protection of refugees is the 1951 Geneva Convention, according to which the term 'refugee' should apply to any person who, as 'a result of events occurring before 1 January 1951 and owing to well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable, or owing to such fear, is unwilling ... to return to it.'

The 1967 Bellagio Protocol extended the provisions of the Geneva Convention to non-Europeans and to events taking place after 1951.

By the end of 1992, 116 countries had signed the 1951 Convention and its 1967 Protocol.

CITIZENSHIP OF THE UNION

Article 8

1. Citizenship of the Union is hereby established.
Every person holding the nationality of a Member State shall be a citizen of the Union.

2. Citizens of the Union shall enjoy the rights conferred by this Treaty and shall be subject to the duties imposed thereby.

Article 8a

1. Every citizen of the Union shall have the right to move and reside freely within the territory of the Member States, subject to the limitations and conditions laid down in this Treaty and by the measures adopted to give it effect.

2. The Council may adopt provisions with a view to facilitating the exercise of the rights referred to in paragraph 1; save as otherwise provided in this Treaty, the Council shall act unanimously on a proposal from the Commission and after obtaining the assent of the European Parliament.

Extract from the Treaty on European Union

Population by nationality as at 1 January 1991

Country	EUR 12	B [1]	DK	D [2]	GR	E	F [3]	IRL [4]	I
Total	**343 881.2**	**9 987.0**	**5 146.5**	**79 753.2**	**10 120.0**	**38 993.8**	**56 652.0**	**3 524.0**	**57 746.2**
Citizen of									
Europe	**337 900.5**	**9 741.2**	**5 084.9**	**78 690.1**	**10 030.6**	**38 856.4**	**54 716.8**	**3 506.6**	**57 232.4**
EUR 12	**333 775.7**	**9 633.9**	**5 013.6**	**75 674.0**	**9 990.4**	**38 826.9**	**54 367.2**	**3 504.8**	**57 114.4**
Belgium	9 222.4	9 082.4	0.3	20.9	1.5	12.0	56.1	0.6	4.7
Denmark	5 033.2	2.6	4 985.8	15.6	1.4	6.7	3.5	1.0	2.0
Germany	74 528.3	28.1	8.4	74 235.0	13.0	45.6	52.7	3.3	42.1
Geece	10 282.2	20.9	0.5	320.2	9 936.2	0.7	6.1	0.2	21.0
Spain	39 062.9	52.2	0.9	135.5	1.0	38 586.2	216.0	0.5	14.4
France	53 362.4	94.3	2.0	85.1	7.3	28.9	53 055.4	1.6	24.4
Ireland	3 973.1	2.4	1.0	10.3	0.6	2.4	3.5	3 436.3	2.3
Italy	58 160.8	241.2	2.0	552.4	7.0	15.8	252.8	1.5	56 965.0
Luxembourg	283.2	4.7	0.0	5.3	0.0	0.2	3.0	0.1	0.2
Netherlands	14 568.8	65.3	2.0	111.7	3.3	17.0	17.9	1.4	7.0
Portugal	10 608.6	16.5	0.3	85.5	0.4	33.3	649.7	0.1	4.5
United Kingdom	54 689.0	23.3	10.2	96.5	18.6	78.2	50.4	58.2	26.8
Other EEA	**433.5**	**7.5**	**24.9**	**243.9**	**7.5**	**27.0**	**33.9**	**0.4**	**35.3**
Austria	212.1	1.1	0.6	183.2	1.7	2.6	3.3	0.3	8.8
Finland	25.3	0.6	1.8	10.5	1.0	3.8	1.6	:	1.8
Iceland	5.1	:	3.0	1.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	:	0.1
Liechtenstein	0.2	:	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	:	:	0.0
Norway	33.9	0.8	10.2	5.8	0.8	3.4	1.9	0.1	1.0
Sweden	59.0	2.7	8.2	12.1	2.1	8.7	4.8	:	3.6
Switzerland	97.9	2.4	1.1	31.2	1.8	8.4	22.1	:	20.0
Central and Eastern Europe	**617.5**	**6.8**	**6.6**	**407.7**	**26.3**	**1.7**	**63.0**	**0.1**	**41.1**
of which: Poland	367.9	4.9	4.7	242.0	13.3	0.6	47.1	0.1	17.0
Other European countries	**3 070.2**	**90.8**	**39.8**	**2 364.5**	**6.4**	**0.9**	**252.7**	**:**	**41.6**
of which: Turkey	2 248.1	84.9	29.7	1 694.6	3.4	0.3	197.7	:	4.7
Africa	**2 685.2**	**182.3**	**7.1**	**198.0**	**19.1**	**25.9**	**1 633.1**	**0**	**238.6**
of which: Morocco	1 041.8	141.7	3.0	69.6	0.3	16.7	572.7	:	78.0
America	**781.2**	**19.3**	**7.9**	**144.6**	**28.6**	**80.6**	**72.8**	**7.6**	**128.4**
of which: United States	354.8	11.7	4.5	92.7	22.2	16.1	24.2	7.6	58.1
Asia	**1 517.8**	**22.2**	**38.2**	**513.4**	**36.1**	**28.9**	**227.0**	**:**	**140.3**
of which: India	194.6	2.7	0.9	29.0	1.6	5.7	4.6	:	11.3
Australia and Oceania	**75.2**	**0.5**	**0.8**	**7.1**	**2.1**	**1.1**	**2.3**	**:**	**5.5**
of which: Australia	52.1	0.4	0.6	5.7	1.7	1.0	1.7	:	4.9
Stateless and unknown	**736.9**	**21.4**	**7.6**	**24.3**	**48.7**	**1.1**	**:**	**:**	**1.1**

[1] No breakdown by nationality is available for 20 600 refugees.
[2] For nationals, the source is the 'Bevölkerungsfortschreibung' (Current population estimate) and for foreigners the 'Ausländerzentralregister' (Central register of foreign nationals).
[3] Results of the 1990 census, metropolitan France.
[4] Provisional results of the 1991 labour force survey; figures rounded up; figures below 1 000 are replaced by '0'. For 11 000 non-Europeans, no breakdown by nationality is available.

(in thousands)

L	NL	P	UK [5]	A [6]	FIN	IS [7]	FL	N	S	EEA	CH
384.6	**15 010.4**	**9 858.5**	**56 705.0**	**7 795.8**	**4 998.5**	**255.7**	**29.0**	**4 249.8**	**8 590.6**	**369 800.6**	**6 750.7**
377.0	14 720.7	9 782.1	55 207.0	7 745.1	4 990.3	254.2	26.6	4 179.4	8 443.9	363 539.9	6 660.3
371.8	14 486.5	9 779.5	55 058.0	77.5	5.2	2.2	1.9	40.6	73.0	333 976.2	769.7
10.3	23.6	1.0	9.0	0.5	0.1	0.0	:	0.4	0.4	9 223.8	5.9
1.5	1.6	0.4	11.0	0.4	0.5	1.0	:	17.2	28.6	5 081.9	2.4
8.9	44.3	4.8	42.0	57.3	1.6	0.3	1.0	4.3	13.0	74 606.1	84.5
0.8	4.9	0.1	16.0	1.0	0.2	0.0	:	0.3	6.5	10 290.1	8.5
2.5	17.2	7.5	29.0	0.7	0.3	0.1	:	0.9	2.9	39 067.8	117.0
13.2	8.9	3.2	38.0	2.2	0.3	0.1	:	1.8	2.9	53 369.7	51.7
0.5	3.4	0.2	510.0	0.2	0.1	0.1	:	0.4	0.7	3 974.5	1.1
19.1	16.9	1.2	86.0	8.6	0.4	0.0	0.9	0.7	4.0	58 175.5	381.5
269.3	0.3	0.0	:	0.3	-	0.0	:	0.0	0.0	283.5	0.7
3.4	14 318.0	1.8	20.0	2.6	0.3	0.1	:	2.6	2.6	14 577.0	12.1
39.3	8.3	9 750.7	20.0	0.2	0.1	0.0	:	0.4	1.5	10 610.9	86.0
3.2	39.0	8.5	54 276.0	3.4	1.4	0.5	:	11.8	10.1	54 710.5	18.3
2.0	**9.1**	**2.0**	**40.0**	**7 285.7**	**4 979.3**	**251.5**	**24.7**	**4 124.7**	**8 275.1**	**25 374.6**	**5 662.3**
0.4	2.9	0.3	7.0	7 278.1	0.1	0.0	2.1	0.5	2.8	7 495.9	29.1
0.2	0.8	0.2	3.0	0.5	4 972.2	0.0	:	3.1	119.7	5 120.8	1.7
0.3	0.2	0,.	:	0.1	0.1	250.9	:	2.2	5.3	263.6	0.1
:	:	-	:	0.4	-	-	18.1	0.0	0.0	18.8	1.6
0.2	1.4	0.3	8.0	0.3	0.5	0.3	:	4 106.5	38.2	4 179.8	1.3
0.5	1.8	0.6	14.0	1.4	6.1	0.2	:	11.7	8 106.9	8 185.3	4.9
0.5	1.9	0.6	8.0	4.9	0.3	0.0	4.4	0.8	2.1	110.4	5 623.6
0.7	**7.9**	**0.5**	**55.0**	**64.4**	**5.4**	**0.3**	**:**	**4.2**	**28.9**	**720.8**	**21.7**
:	4.1	0.1	34.0	18.3	0.6	0.2	:	2.9	15.7	405.6	5.3
2.4	**217.0**	**0.1**	**54.0**	**317.5**	**0.4**	**0.1**	**:**	**9.8**	**66.8**	**3 464.8**	**206.7**
0.2	203.5	0.0	29.0	118.6	0.3	0.0	:	5.5	25.5	2 398.0	64.9
1.7	**186.2**	**45.3**	**148.0**	**8.5**	**1.2**	**0.1**	**:**	**9.4**	**17.8**	**2 722.3**	**20.3**
:	156.9	0.1	3.0	0.2	0.3	0.0	:	2.2	1.3	1 045.8	2.6
1.8	**42.2**	**26.4**	**221.0**	**9.5**	**2.2**	**0.9**	**:**	**18.0**	**37.8**	**849.6**	**29.1**
1.2	11.4	6.9	98.0	5.8	1.5	0.7	:	9.5	8.0	380.3	11.2
1.6	**53.0**	**4.2**	**453.0**	**25.7**	**2.7**	**0.4**	**:**	**42.1**	**76.4**	**1 665.1**	**38.9**
:	3.2	0.6	135.0	3.0	0.3	0.0	:	3.5	1.7	203.1	3.9
0.1	**2.4**	**0.4**	**53.0**	**0.7**	**0.3**	**0.1**	**:**	**0.6**	**1.5**	**78.5**	**1.7**
:	1.9	0.3	34.0	0.6	0.3	0.1	:	0.5	1.1	54.7	1.4
2.4	**6.0**	**0.2**	**624.0**	**6.2**	**1.7**	**0.0**	**:**	**0.3**	**13.2**	**758.3**	**0.3**

[5] Provisional results of the 1991 labour force survey; figures rounded up; France includes data for Morocco, and Italy for San Marino and the Vatican. Switzerland includes Liechtenstein.
[6] Results of the 1991 census.
[7] 1 December 1990.

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POPULATION

HOUSEHOLDS AND FAMILIES

Over the past 30 years, family and household structures have diversified, different kinds of family have emerged and more and more people are now living alone.

In the European Economic Area, 99% of the population live in private and 1% in collective households.

In 1990, a quarter of private households in the European Union consisted of one person only, a proportion which has been rising since the start of the 1980s.

Between 1970 and 1992, the number or marriages fell by almost 24%.

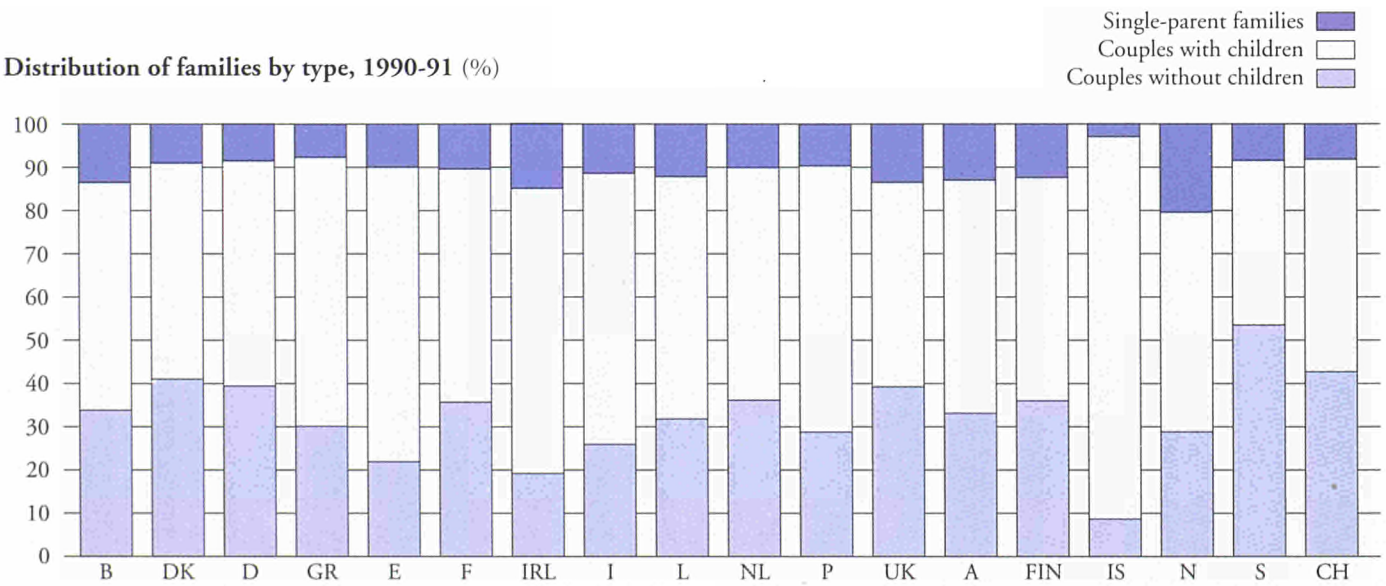
In 1992, the average age of men marrying for the first time was over 28, and of women around 26.

There were 3.5 times as many divorces in 1991 as in 1960.

One of the main types of family structure is still a couple with children. However, for every 100 nuclear families, there are between 7 and 20 single-parent families.

Although most children under the age of six live with both their parents, between 2 and 20% live in one-parent families, generally with their mother.

Distribution of families by type, 1990-91 (%)



NB: Austria: data from microcensus.

A very small share — only 1% — of the population of the EEA lives in collective households.

Collective households are a disparate group covering very different situations: boarding schools, orphanages, retirement homes, workers' hostels, prisons, etc. In percentage terms, they have been declining slightly for 10 years now, though the number of old people needing to live in establishments that provide medical care is currently increasing. As the pattern of demography of the EEA shows a growing proportion of elderly and old people, it is likely that the number of people living in collective households will also increase over the next few years. Although the proportion of collective households varies from one Member State to another, the figures are less widely dispersed than 10 years ago.

Breakdown of the population by type of household, 1990-91

	Private households (in thousands)	Number of persons per household	Family households (%)	Non-family households (%)	One-person households (as % of private households)
EUR 12	130 878	2.6	70.3	29.7	26.1
B	3 953	2.5	68.6	31.5	28.4
DK	2 274	2.2	61.8	38.2	34.4
D	35 256	2.2	62.3	37.7	33.6
GR	3 204	3.1	78.8	21.2	16.3
E	11 836	3.3	83.1	16.9	13.4
F	21 542	2.6	70.8	29.2	27.1
IRL	1 029	3.3	72.9	27.1	20.2
I	19 909	2.8	76.3	23.7	20.6
L	145	2.6	69.0	31.0	25.4
NL	6 162	2.4	62.3	37.7	30.0
P	3 146	3.1	83.7	16.3	13.8
UK	22 422	2.5	70.5	29.5	26.2
A	3 013	2.6	69.0	31.0	28.3
FIN	2 037	2.4	62.8	37.2	31.7
IS	93	2.8	:	:	:
FL	:	2.7	:	:	:
N	1 751	2.4	:	:	34.3
S	3 830	2.1	:	:	39.6
EEA	141 602	2.6	:	:	:
CH	2 860	2.3	64.3	35.7	32.4

NB: Austria: data from microcensus.

The population of a country is made up of private and collective households. Private households may be subdivided into two groups: family and non-family.

Private households are becoming smaller.

In every EEA country apart from Greece, where the situation has remained stable, the average household size has been declining since the beginning of the 1980s. At the start of the 1990s, Spain and Ireland headed the chart with an average of 3.3 persons per household, despite a fall of over 8% in the size of private households between 1981 and 1991. Households are smallest in Sweden (2.1), Denmark and Germany (2.2) and the Netherlands (2.4). The widespread decrease in household size reflects an overall tendency towards the individualization of society.

Family households comprise one or more families.

There are various types of family household, the variety coming partly from differences in fertility (see 'Fertility'), nuptiality and divorce. Families may be married couples or couples who are not married to each other, they may or may not have children, and they may be single-parent or second families.

Very disparate data suggest that households comprising two or more families make up a very small minority: 4.7% of family households in Portugal and 3.5% in Germany.

Non-family households are in the minority.

They comprise people living alone and people living in the same household with no husband/wife or child/parent relationship between them. In Denmark, they account for 38% of private households as against 16.3% in Portugal.

Average number of persons per private household

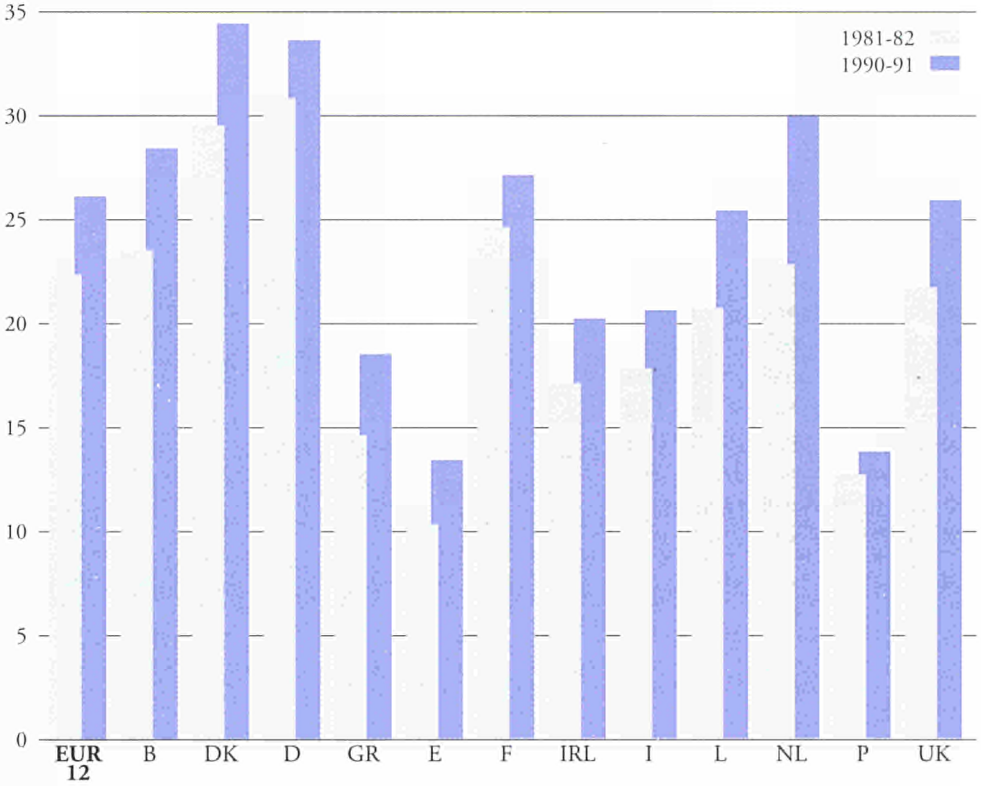
NB: Austria: data from microcensus.

There was an increase in the share of one-person households between 1980 and 1990.

The vast majority of non-family households consist of one person. At the time of the 1990-91 census, the largest numbers of such households were in Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Germany and the Netherlands (over 30% of private households). Percentages were lowest in the southern countries and Ireland (some 20% of private households).

The percentage of one-person households has been rising in all Union countries and most sharply in the Netherlands (+ 23%). Generally, people live alone at the opposite ends of their adult life spans, as young persons (studying or starting work) and when the children have left home and the surviving spouse is widowed. Since women tend to live longer than men, the majority of those living alone are elderly women.

Proportion of one-person households (% of private households)

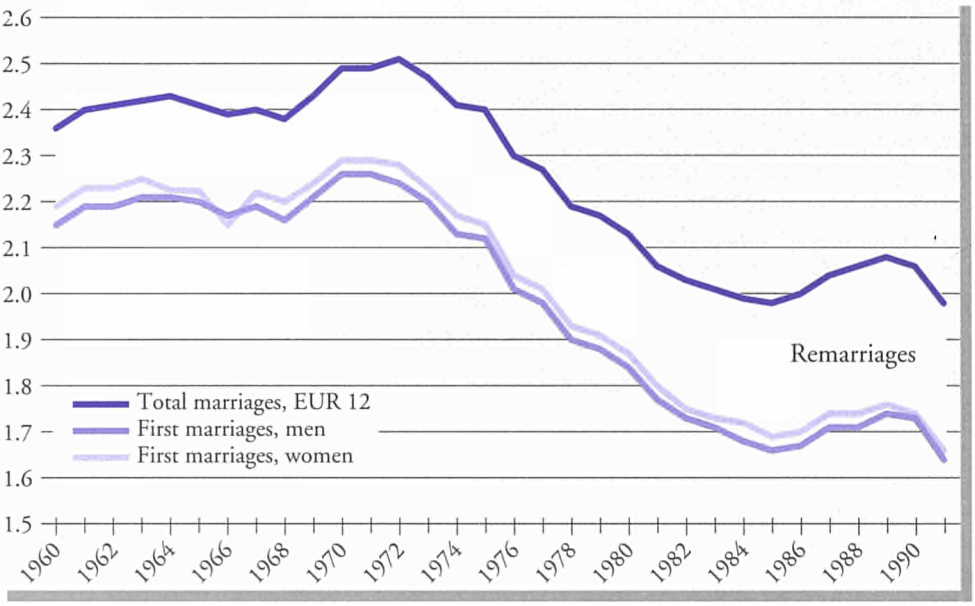


Since 1960, there has been a fall of over 20% in the number of marriages in the EEA.

In 1960, there were 2 362 000 marriages; by 1991, the figure had fallen to 1 958 500. Although marriage is becoming less popular, rates remained high until the start of the 1970s, and since then they have been falling steadily. In contrast, the number of remarriages, calculated as the difference between the total number of marriages and the number of first marriages, has been on the increase, with more men than women remarrying, except around 1964.

This trend can be seen in almost all EEA countries, although there are slight differences in Luxembourg, Germany, Austria and Sweden, where the number of marriages has been falling or has stagnated since the beginning of the 1960s.

Marriages, EUR 12 (million)



Marriages by country

(in thousands)

	1960	1970	1980	1992
EUR 12	2 362.7	2 488.7	2 134.5	1 884.9 [1]
B	65.2	73.3	66.4	58.2
DK	35.9	36.4	26.4	32.2
D	689.0	575.3	496.6	453.4
GR	58.2	67.4	62.3	48.6
E	236.9	248.2	220.7	215.1 [1]
F	319.9	393.7	334.4	271.4
IRL	15.5	20.8	21.8	16.1
I	387.7	395.5	322.9	303.8
L	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.5
NL	89.1	123.6	90.2	93.6
P	69.5	81.5	72.2	69.9
UK	393.6	470.9	418.4	:
A	58.5	52.8	46.4	45.7
FIN	32.8	40.7	29.4	23.6
IS	1.3	1.6	1.3	1.2
FL	0.9	0.1	0.2	:
N	23.7	29.4	22.2	19.3
S	50.2	43.3	37.6	37.2
EEA	2 529.1	2 656.5	2 271.4	2 011.9 [1]
CH	41.6	46.7	35.7	45.1

[1] Estimates based on provisional data for Spain.

Since the 1970s, Europeans have been getting married later.

With marriage becoming less common, there has been a noticeable fall in the number of first marriages and a rise in age at the time of first marriage. The latter phenomenon has been in evidence since the 1970s, whereas in the 1950s and 1960s the tendency was for people to marry younger.

In 1992, the average age at the time of first marriage was highest in Denmark and Sweden (28 for women and over 30 for men) and lowest in Belgium, Portugal and the United Kingdom (under 25 for women and under 27 for men).

There is no great difference between the average ages of men and women marrying for the first time: two years in Belgium, France, Ireland and the United Kingdom and over four years in Greece.

Average age at time of first marriage

	1960		1970		1980		1992	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
B	25.1	22.9	24.4	22.9	25.9	23.1	26.7	24.7
DK	25.8	22.8	25.3	22.7	27.2	24.6	30.5	28.0
D	25.4	23.4	24.9	22.5	25.6	22.9	28.5	25.8
GR	29.2	25.2	28.7	23.7	27.9	23.1	29.3	25.0
E	28.8	26.1	27.4	24.7	25.9	23.5	28.1 [1]	25.6 [1]
F	25.7	23.0	24.7	22.6	25.1	23.0	28.1	26.1
IRL	30.8	27.6	27.4	25.3	26.1	25.0	28.4 [1]	26.6 [1]
I	28.6	24.8	27.4	24.0	27.1	23.9	28.6 [1]	25.7 [1]
L	:	:	:	:	25.2	23.0	28.3	26.0
NL	26.6	24.2	25.0	22.9	25.5	23.2	28.7	26.5
P	26.9	24.8	26.6	24.3	25.4	23.2	26.3	24.3
UK	25.4	22.9	24.2	22.1	24.9	22.7	26.6	24.7
A	26.7	24.0	25.6	22.9	25.9	23.2	27.8	25.3
FIN	25.8	23.8	25.3	23.4	26.5	24.4	28.3	26.4
IS	:	:	:	:	:	:	29.6	27.4
N	26.6	23.7	25.5	22.8	26.2	23.5	29.1	26.3
S	:	:	26.4	23.9	28.6	26.0	30.4	28.0
CH	27.5	24.9	26.5	24.2	27.4	25.0	29.2	27.6

[1] In 1991.

Since the 1960s, the indicator of first marriages has plummeted in all Union countries.

In the 1960s it was around 1, but by 1992 it had fallen to below 0.6. In every case it is higher for women than for men.

In 1992, the trend towards cohabitation — which is responsible for the noticeable fall in marriage indices — was facing the strongest resistance from the institution of marriage in Portugal, with resistance slightly less strong in Ireland and Switzerland.

Conversely, Iceland, followed by Norway and Sweden, has the lowest indicator. Assuming that conditions do not change, around 30% of those born in the 1960s will still be single by the time they are 50.

The ***first marriage*** rate is the number of first marriages at a certain age celebrated in a given year in relation to the average population of that age, of all matrimonial statuses, in the same year.

The ***indicator of first marriage*** is the sum of the rates of first marriage by age. It represents the share of single persons who would be married at the age of 50 if they complied at every age with the first marriage rates observed for a given year.

NB: Data for Germany refer to 1970, not 1960; data for Ireland, Italy and Spain refer to 1991; no data are available for the United Kingdom.

As the number of marriages declines, existing marriages are tending to become less stable.

Between 1960 and 1991, the number of divorces in the EEA rose by a factor of 3.5, with an even more rapid rise (by a factor of 3.7) in the countries of the Union. Since 1988, the number has fallen in absolute terms, but as a result of the fall in the number of marriages rather than in the number of marriages breaking down, which in fact increased.

In 1992, the divorce rate was above 2 and even as high as 2.5 in many northern European countries (seven out of the 18 EEA members). In southern Europe, the figure was below 1, except in Portugal, where it was 1.3.

The ***crude divorce rate*** measures the frequency of divorce and is the ratio of the number of divorces to total population.

Crude divorce rates

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL [2]	I	L	NL	P	UK	A	FIN	IS	FL	N	S	EEA	CH
1960	0.5	0.5	1.5	1.0	0.3	:	0.7	:	:	0.5	0.5	0.1	0.5	1.1	0.8	:	:	0.7	1.2	:	0.9
1970	0.7	0.7	1.9	1.3	0.4	:	0.8	:	:	0.6	0.8	0.1	1.1	1.4	1.3	1.2	:	0.9	1.6	0.8	1.0
1980	1.4	1.5	2.7	1.8	0.7	:	1.5	:	0.2	1.6	1.8	0.6	2.8	1.8	2.0	1.9	0.8	1.6	2.4	1.4	1.7
1990	1.6	2.0	2.7	2.0	0.6	0.6	1.9	:	0.5	2.0	1.9	0.9	2.9	2.1	2.6	1.9	0.9	2.4	2.3	1.7	2.0
1992	1.6 [1]	2.2	2.5	1.7	0.6	0.7 [1]	1.9 [1]	:	0.5	1.8	2.0	1.3	3.0 [1]	2.0	2.6	2.0	1.1	2.4	2.5	1.6 [1]	2.1

[1] 1991 data.
[2] Divorce is not authorized under Irish law.

The number of marriages is decreasing, but most couples live together.

The disinclination of young people to marry, the proliferation of divorces and lower fertility rates have all led to changes in behaviour. There has been an enormous increase in the number of single-parent families. It has become much more common for couples to live together and have children without marrying. People who have divorced may set up new families with new partners, and these new forms of family life are not easy to cover statistically.

In all the EEA countries, couples with children are the most common type of family unit.

These types of family are particularly common in Spain, and also account for over 60% of families in Portugal, Greece, Ireland and Italy.

However, childless couples are very common in Sweden (53.5%), Denmark (41%), Germany and the United Kingdom (over 39%). Single-parent families range from 20% of all families in Norway to 7.6% in Greece.

In this context, the ***family*** is defined as an entity formed, for example, by a couple with or without children or a single parent with children.

The term ***couple*** covers various situations: married persons, people living together, people who have remarried and formed a new couple with or without children.

Couples without children are a difficult category to cover, since they include three types of people: parents whose children have left home, couples who are not yet parents and older couples who have never had children.

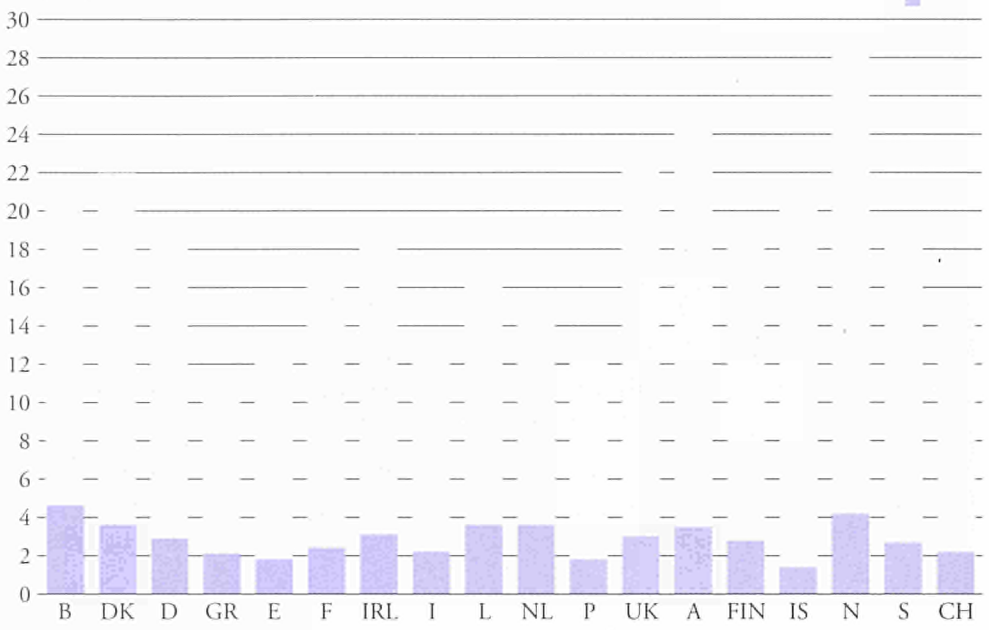
There are also different types of ***couples with children,*** depending on the age of the children — whether they are pre-school or at school, at university or embarking on a career.

Europe divides into two as regards the incidence of single-parent families.

In Norway, Austria, Iceland, the United Kingdom, Denmark and Belgium, over 20% of families with children are single-parent families.

By contrast, this type of family is much less common in the southern countries.

Single-parent families, 1990-91 (% of families with children)



NB: Austria: data from microcensus.

In the vast majority of cases, the head of the single-parent family is the mother.

An average of 15% of single-parent families consist of father and child(ren). The Netherlands has the highest percentage of fathers bringing up children alone (23.7%) and Iceland the lowest (7.9%).

In 1990, the percentage of children aged under six living in single-parent families ranged from 18% in the United Kingdom to 2% in Greece.

The highest figures are for the United Kingdom, Denmark and Germany. In the majority of cases, the single parent is the mother. Only in the Netherlands and Luxembourg do over 2% of under six-year-olds live with their father alone.

Relative percentages of the different types of family, 1990-91

(% of family nuclei)

	B	DK[1]	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L[2]	NL	P	UK	A	FIN	IS[3]	N	S	CH
Total couples, of which:	86.5	91.0	91.5	92.4	90.0	89.6	85.0	88.6	87.8	89.9	90.3	86.5	87.0	87.6	86.9	79.6	91.5	92.0
couples without children	33.8	41.0	39.4	30.1	21.9	35.7	19.2	25.9	31.8	36.1	28.8	39.2	33.1	36.0	38.1	28.8	53.5	41.5
couples with children	52.7	50.0	52.1	62.2	68.1	53.9	65.9	62.6	56.0	53.7	61.5	47.2	53.9	51.6	48.9	50.7	38.0	50.5
Total single-parent families, of which:	13.5	9.0	8.5	7.6	10.0	10.4	15.0	11.4	12.2	10.1	9.7	13.5	13.0	12.4	13.1	20.4	8.5	8.0
father alone	2.7	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.5	2.5	2.7	2.5	2.4	1.3	1.9	1.9	1.8	0.9	3.0	1.2	1.3
mother alone	10.8	7.8	7.2	6.1	8.6	8.9	12.4	8.7	9.7	7.7	8.3	11.7	11.1	10.6	13.1	17.4	7.3	6.7
Total family nuclei	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

NB: Austria: data from microcensus.
[1] Children under 26.
[2] Children under 25.
[3] Children under 16.

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EDUCATION

TEACHING

Almost one fifth of the population of the European Union is in school or university education.

Overall, the number of pupils and students declined between 1980 and 1990 due to the fall in the birth rate. Young people, however, are tending more and more to continue with post-compulsory education.

The number of women in the student population is on the increase.

Five per cent of students are not nationals of the country in which they are studying. A quarter of non-national students come from another EU Member State.

The number of students taking part in Community student exchange programmes is rising steadily.

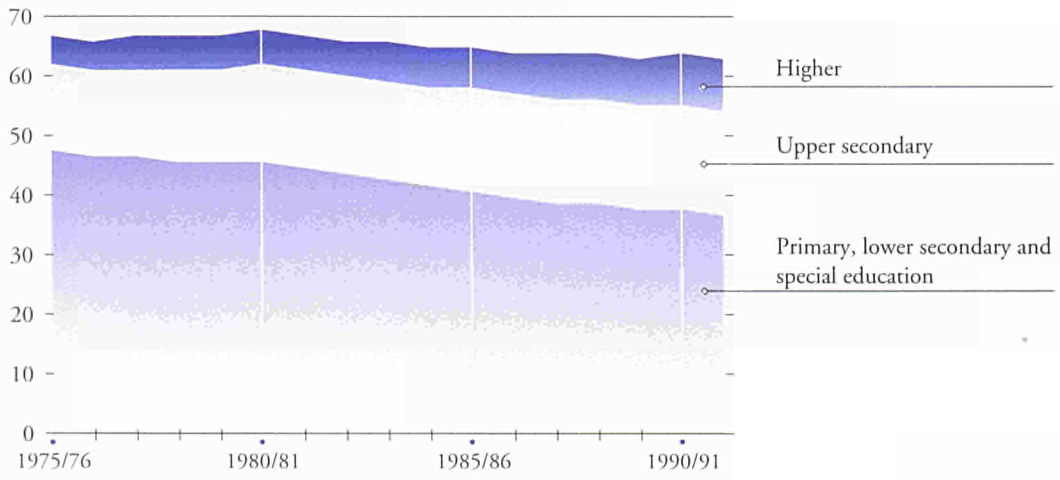
In 1991/92, 83% of secondary school pupils were studying English as a foreign language, 32% French and 16% German.

At the third level, the medical and health sciences, arts and theology attract a majority of female undergraduates.

There are some 4.5 million teachers for the 67 million pupils and students in the European Union, 19 pupils per teacher at primary and 13 at secondary level.

The level of education attained by the population in general has risen. Over a period of 30 years the proportion of people completing third-level studies (at university or elsewhere) has almost doubled.

Numbers of pupils and students, EUR 12 (million)

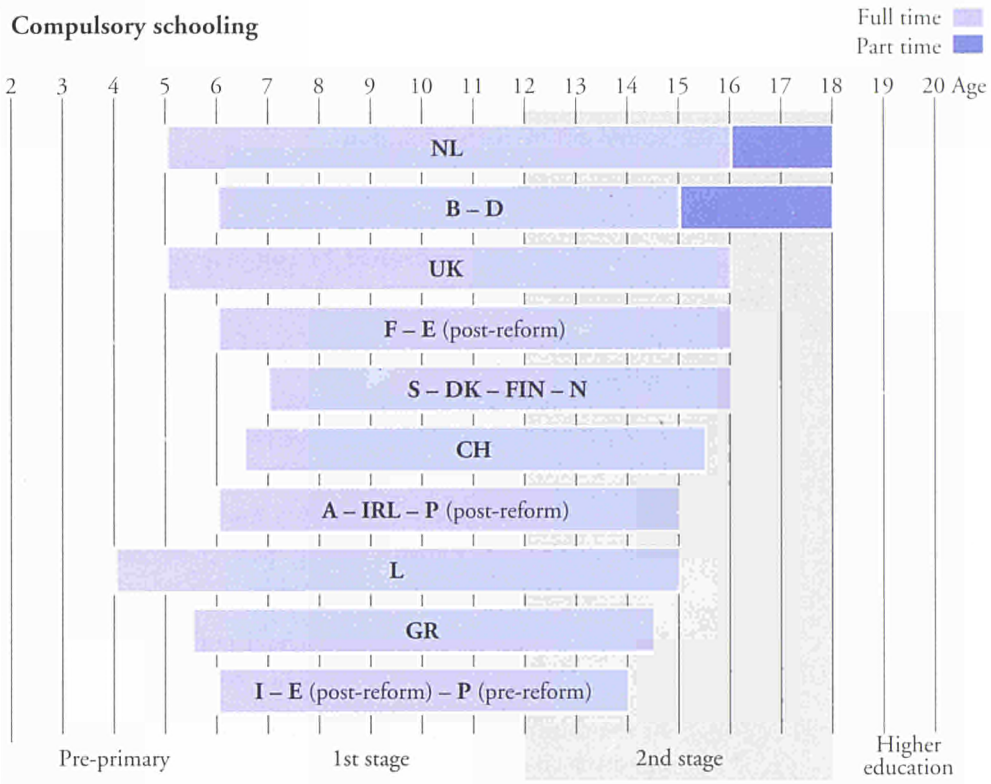


NB: The new German *Länder* are not included.

Compulsory education lasts 13 years in the Netherlands but only eight in Italy.

It begins at the age of 5 or 6 years in almost all Member States of the Union and at age 7 years in Scandinavia. In Germany, Belgium and the Netherlands, schooling is compulsory up to the age of 18. The final years are sometimes on a part-time basis combined with vocational training. In the other countries, compulsory schooling ends at 15 or 16 years of age (except for Italy where it ends at 14).

Compulsory schooling



NB: In Northern Ireland, compulsory schooling begins at age 4.
Sources: Organization of school time in the Member States of the European Union, Eurydice, 1994, and national statistical institutes of EFTA countries.

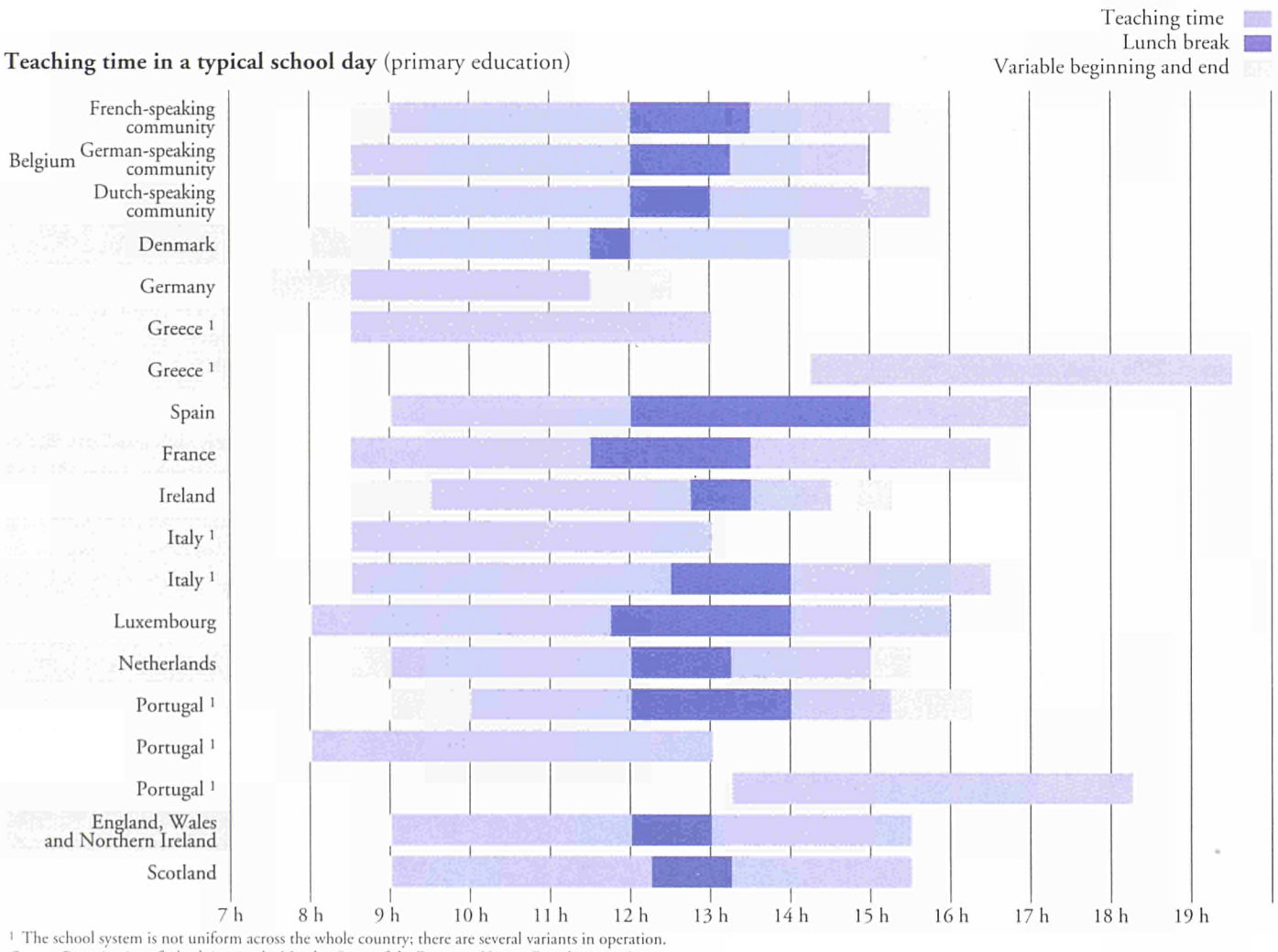
The ages given are theoretical for most of the countries as compulsory schooling in fact lasts for a certain number of years and does not end at a particular age. Furthermore, recent reforms in Spain and Portugal have increased the length of compulsory schooling from 8 years to 10 in Spain and to 9 in Portugal. These reforms were introduced in 1990 and 1987 respectively, but are being implemented gradually. This chapter makes reference to pre-reform data only.

The school day varies greatly from one Member State to another. Some pupils have classes all day, others only in the morning or only in the afternoon.

Two principal models exist and are in some cases applied even in different parts of the same country. In Germany, Greece, certain parts of Italy and Portugal, schools have adopted part-time schooling, whereby classes are held by the half day, generally in the morning. In Greece and in Portugal, classes alternate for different groups of students between the morning and the afternoon to overcome the lack of premises. Full-time schooling with a break in the middle of the day is the norm in Belgium, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, Spain and the UK.

The part-time system means either that parents (mothers in particular) have to be available more in the afternoons or that a supervision system has to be set up. Both of these options have clear repercussions for the labour market.

Teaching time in a typical school day (primary education)



[1] The school system is not uniform across the whole country; there are several variants in operation.
Source: Organization of school time in the Member States of the European Union, Eurydice, 1994.

Although each Member State has its own education system, the ISCED (international standard classification of education), by recategorizing the various national levels, helps to deal with differences between the national systems and facilitates comparisons between them.

Pre-primary (ISCED 0): Education preceding the primary level.

Primary, first level (ISCED 1): Elementary education, compulsory in all cases and generally for a period of five or six years.

Lower secondary, second level, first stage (ISCED 2): This is also compulsory and lasts three years in the majority of cases.

Upper secondary, second level, second stage (ISCED 3): This begins around the age of 14 or 15, lasts normally for three years and either leads to the level required for admission to a higher education establishment or marks the end of normal schooling and vocational training.

Higher education, third level (ISCED 5, 6, 7): Comprises university and all other types of higher education.

Almost one fifth of the inhabitants of the European Union are either pupils or students.

There were 67 million pupils and students in the European Union (including the new German *Länder*) in the 1991/92 academic year. About 60% were in compulsory education, 25% upper secondary and 14% higher education.

While on average 19% of the population of the European Union are at school or university, the proportion varies from one Member State to another, owing to differences in the political incentives aimed at prolonging schooling and in the age composition of their populations. The proportion is highest in Ireland, as Ireland has the highest proportion of young people in its population.

The number of pupils and students fell during the 1980s.

This fact is a result of the drop in the birth rate, which began in the mid-1960s and continued until 1984. The effects were not immediately apparent but there was a definite decline in the total number of pupils (–5%) during the 1980s. The number of births stagnated between 1984 and 1990 but the number of pupils and students began to rise again in the 1990/91 academic year.

Number of pupils and students, 1991/92

(in thousands)

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	A	FIN	IS	N	S	EEA	CH
Total [1]	67 103	2 050	933	13 346	1 861	8 777	11 791	889	9 553	49	3 537	2 024	12 295	1 352	1 013	62	878	1 382	71 790	1 127
% of the total population	19	20	18	17	18	22	21	25	17	:	23	21	21	17	20	24	21	16	19	16

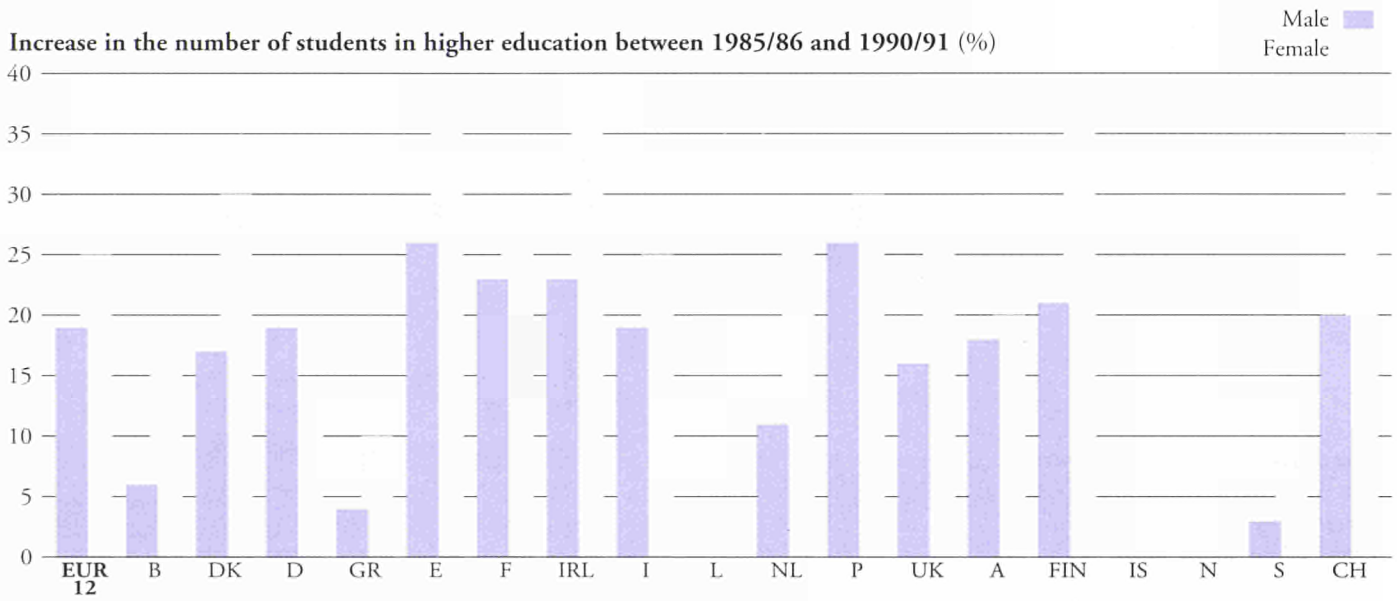
[1] Pre-primary excluded.

The decline in the number of pupils during the 1980s was partly offset by increased participation in higher education.

The number of students in higher education rose considerably during the 1980s, with an average rise of 22% in Europe, even over the relatively short period between 1985/86 and 1990/91. All Member States experienced an increase ranging from 7% in Greece to 31% in Spain.

One of the main reasons is the current labour-market situation, with fewer and fewer jobs available and higher and higher qualifications required. One solution to this problem is, therefore, to prolong the duration of studies.

Increase in the number of students in higher education between 1985/86 and 1990/91 (%)

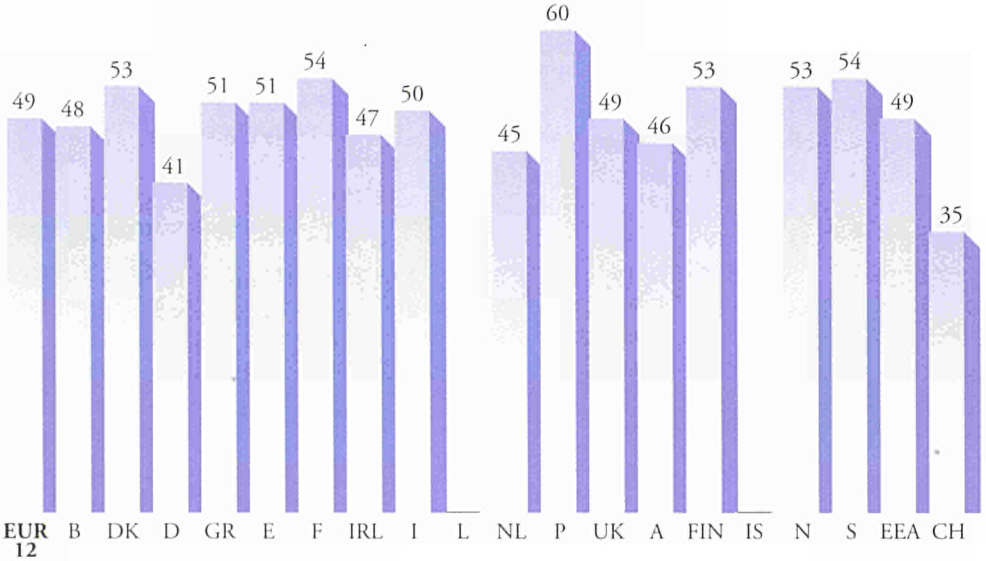


NB: Portugal: 1989/90; Germany: new *Länder* not included; Luxembourg, Iceland and Norway: data not available.

The increase in the number of female students was greater than that of male students.

In all countries, except in Germany, female students account for almost half of all students registered.
In 1985/86 an average of 46.5% of the student population were female. In 1991/92 this figure rose to 49%, while 48.9% of the total population between the ages of 18 and 24 were female. For the EU as a whole, higher education can thus be regarded as a stronghold of equal opportunities. There are, however, marked differences between countries. While in Portugal 60% of the student population are female, in Switzerland the figure is 35% and in Germany 41%.

Number of female students in higher education 1991/92 (%)

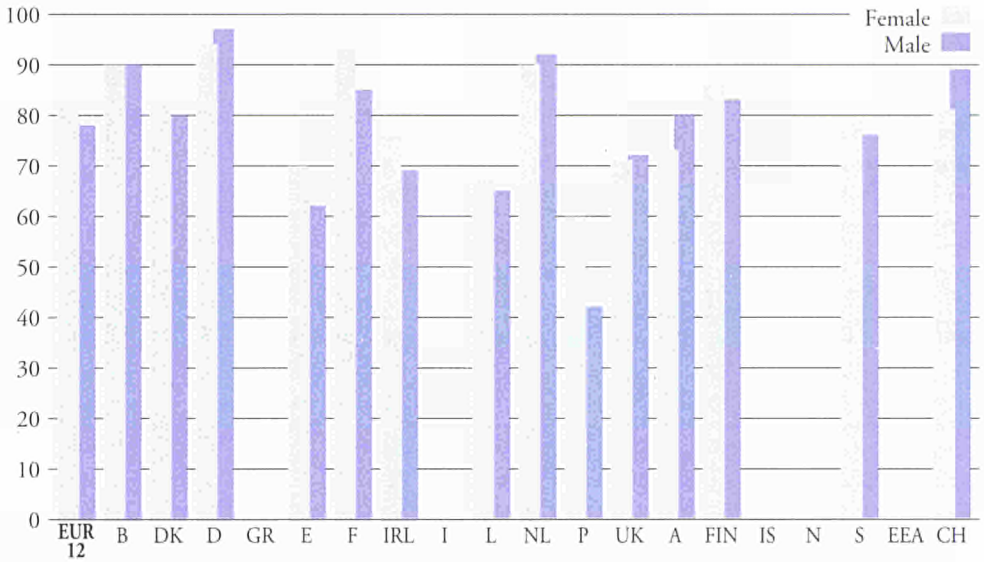


NB: Luxembourg and Iceland: data not available.

There is a greater tendency among girls than boys to remain in education after the compulsory years.

In France, Ireland, Portugal and Spain, the disparity is greater than 7%. The opposite is true of Austria, where 80% of boys and 73% of girls are in education, and of Switzerland (89% of boys and 81% of girls). In the other countries the differences are minimal.

School enrolment ratios in the 16 to 18 age group, 1991/92 (%)



NB: Greece, Italy, Iceland and Norway: data not available.

The differences in the enrolment ratio in each age group are partly explained by the varying duration of compulsory education.

In Belgium, Germany, France and the Netherlands, 90% of 16- to 18-year-olds attend school, while the Community average is 80%. This percentage is fairly high as part-time education is compulsory after the age of 16 in all these countries except France. In France, 89% of the 16 to 18 age group are in education despite the fact that compulsory schooling ends at 16.

On the other hand, in Spain and Portugal, where compulsory schooling ends at 14 (pre-reform), and Ireland, where it lasts until 15, the proportion of pupils aged between 16 and 18 still in education is relatively low at 66, 51 and 72% respectively.

The early end to compulsory schooling is not the only determining factor, of course: the labour market situation, government incentives, tradition, etc. also have a certain role to play.

Theoretically, the majority of pupils have completed their full-time compulsory schooling by 16. However, some repeat the year which is normally the end of compulsory schooling and this causes a shift in the school leaving age.

School enrolment ratios, 14 to 19 age group, 1991/92

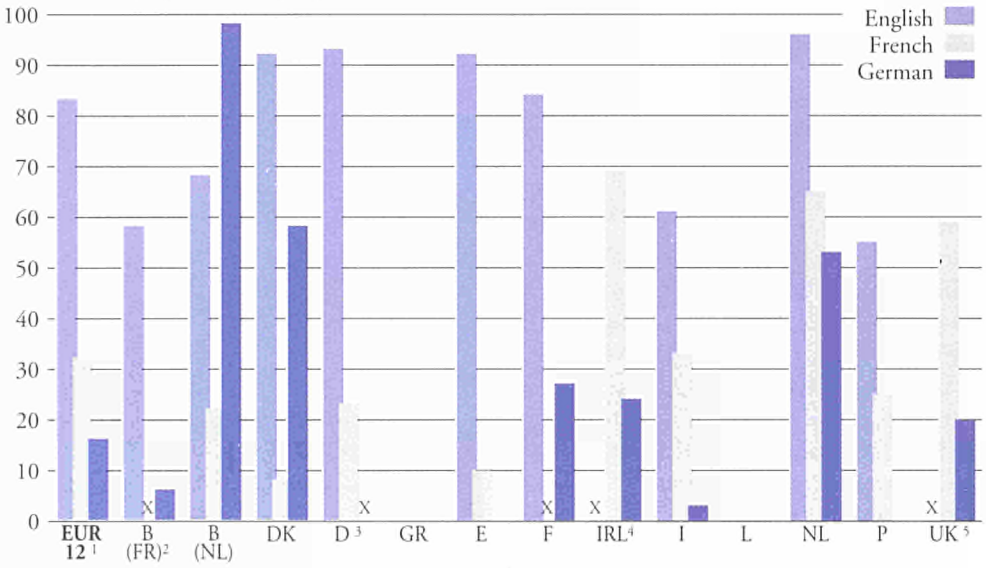
(%)

Age	14	15	16	17	18	19
B	100	100	97	94	80	65
DK	100	97	93	80	69	52
D [1]	99	97	97	95	89	70
GR [2]	98	87	85	65	:	:
E	100	92	76	68	54	45
F	99	99	95	91	81	65
IRL	100	97*	91	75	53	37
I	:	:	:	:	:	:
L [3]	80*	75*	74*	68*	56*	:
NL	99	99	98	94	82	66
P	85	72	60	52	41	33
UK	100	99	94*	78*	43*	35*
A [4]	97	92	89	83	59	33
FIN [5]	100	100	93	86	74	36
N	:	:	:	:	:	:
S	:	:	:	:	:	:
EEA	100	100	86	87	61	24
CH	98	96	90	87	78	56

NB: * = Estimate.
[1] New *Länder* excluded.
[2] 1989/90.
[3] A large number of pupils studying in neighbouring countries and pupils of the European School are not included.
[4] 1992/93.
[5] 1990/91.

In this section on modern foreign languages, second-level education is taken to mean lower and upper secondary education, excluding vocational or technical training. The study of the mother tongue is excluded from the data.

Number of pupils by language studied, 1991/92 (%)



NB: X = not relevant.
[1] Excluding Greece and Luxembourg.
[2] The data for the French-speaking area include the German-speaking area.
[3] The *Länder* Brandenburg, Saxony-Anhalt and Thuringia are not included.
[4] Full-time only.
[5] England and Scotland only.

In 1991/92, 83% of all second-level pupils were studying English as a foreign language.

French was in second place (32% of pupils studied it), followed by German (16% of pupils). However, in Dutch-speaking Belgium, French is the most common foreign language studied, followed by English. In the French-speaking part of the country, the first foreign language is Dutch (71%), followed by English. In general the third most common foreign language learned is either French, German or Spanish (studied by 9% of pupils, on average, and by 29% of pupils in France). Russian is learned by 8% of pupils in Germany, putting it in third place in that country (although no figures are available for three of the new *Länder*).

At secondary school, in 1991/92, the Dutch-speaking Belgians and the Dutch learned more foreign languages than pupils in other EU Member States.

In the European Union, pupils in second-level education learned, on average, 1.2 foreign languages in 1991/92. For five countries the figure is about 1.0 (ranging from 0.8 in Portugal to 1.0 in Spain). For the other countries (no data available for Greece or Luxembourg), the average is higher. In Germany an average of 1.3 foreign languages is learned while in French- and German-speaking Belgium and in France 1.4, in Denmark 1.6, in Dutch-speaking Belgium 1.9 and in the Netherlands 2.2.

Emphasis on foreign language teaching: opinion of the 15 to 24 age group

(%)

	1987	1990
Adequate	46	37
Inadequate	47	58
Don't know/No reply	7	5

Source: Eurobarometer.

According to an opinion poll, almost 60% of young people aged between 15 and 24 feel that the emphasis on the teaching of foreign languages is inadequate.

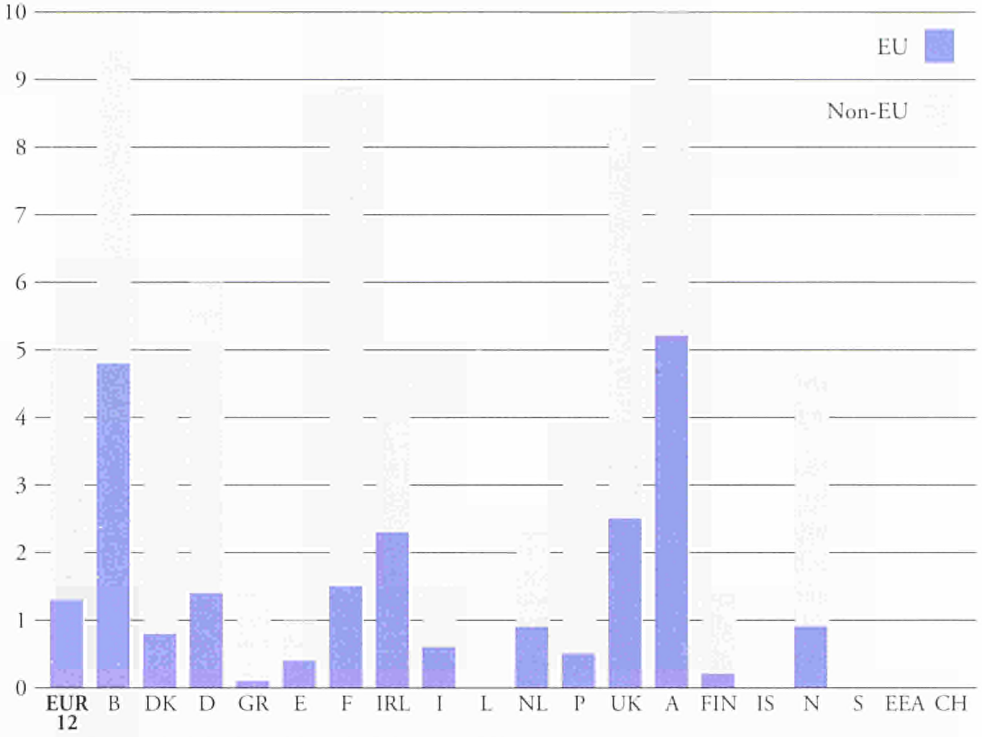
In the three years from 1987 to 1990, the attitude of young people towards the learning of foreign languages became even more positive than before. According to the same survey, 60% of young people in 1990 considered themselves capable of communicating in a foreign language.

The majority of pupils in the Member States study at least one modern foreign language as of their first year in second-level education (in some countries foreign languages are taught at primary school). The study of a foreign language is or is to become compulsory in all Member States except Ireland (where Irish and English are the only compulsory languages studied).

On average, 5% of students are not nationals of the country in which they are studying.

In 1991/92, there were some 474 000 non-national students in higher education. This may be attributed to the high level of migrants in the total population and/or to university exchange programmes. There are marked differences between the countries, which can be divided essentially into three groups. In Belgium, France, the UK and Austria, the proportion of foreign students varies between 8 and 10%; in Germany, Denmark, Ireland, Portugal and Norway between 3 and 6%, and in the other countries, the proportion is 2% or less.

Non-nationals as percentage of third-level students, 1991/92



NB: Luxembourg, Iceland, Sweden and Switzerland: data not available.

The presence of non-nationals is the result of a combination of historical links, linguistic factors and geographical proximity.

A quarter of non-national students are nationals of other EU Member States.

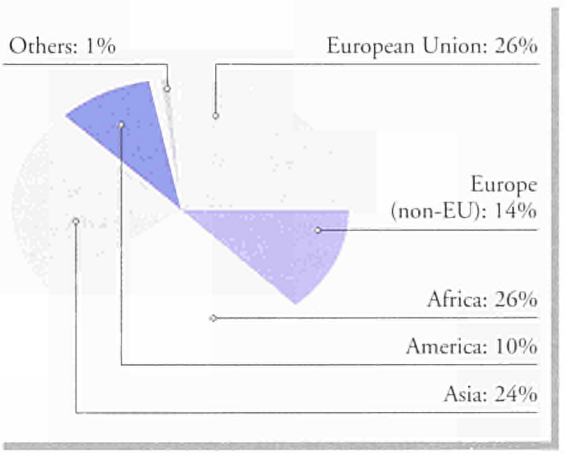
With the sole exception of Denmark, where 20% are EFTA nationals, only 5% of the 474 000 non-national students come from the EFTA countries.

One in four non-national students is of African and a further quarter of Asian origin.

Old colonial ties and other historical links have encouraged the use of certain European languages in many countries of the world, and now provide the impetus for a number of the student exchange networks.

This explains the strong African presence in France (55% of non-national students) and Portugal (59% of non-national students). It also explains why Spain has a much larger proportion of South American students (23% of non-nationals) than the average (4% of non-national students). In Portugal, 86% of non-national students come from outside the Community, with South Americans accounting for 21% of that 86% (linguistic influence of Brazil) and Africans (mainly from the ex-colonies of Angola and Cape Verde) making up 59% of non-Community students.

Non-nationals in higher education by nationality, 1991/92, EUR 12 (% of students)



The number of graduates coming on to the labour market is increasing every year in the European Union.

In 1990, approximately 1.3 million students obtained a higher education degree. The majority then moved on to the labour market while a small number continued their studies. The proportions vary between the countries because of the differences in the higher education systems.

The international classification distinguishes between about 20 possible areas of study. In order to make comparisons easier, these have been regrouped here into six main fields:

Field 1: Fine and applied arts; humanities, religion, theology.

Field 2: Social and behavioural sciences, commercial and business administration, law, information and documentation.

Field 3: Natural and exact sciences, mathematics and computer science.

Field 4: Medical and health sciences.

Field 5: Industrial production, engineering, architecture and town planning, transport and telecommunications.

Field 6: Education, home economics, training for the tertiary sector, agriculture, forestry and fisheries, other and non-specified subjects.

Almost a third of graduates have degrees in the social sciences, commerce or law.

There are about the same number of graduates in arts and theology (9%) as there are in natural sciences and mathematics (10%).

Male and female students tend to choose different fields.

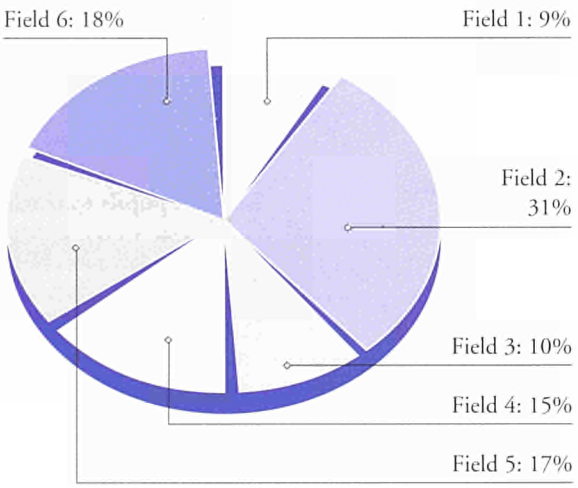
The medical and health sciences and arts and religion attract a majority of female students.

In both cases, female graduates account for more than half of all graduates (69 and 65%). There are also large numbers of female graduates in the social sciences, commerce and law (50%), in the natural sciences and mathematics (35%) and in engineering, architecture and transport (15%).

This division of qualifications between men and women has inevitable consequences as regards women on the labour market.

'Other' fields of study include mainly teacher training (not yet harmonized at EU level) as well as branches with fewer students such as agriculture and home economics. In all countries except Switzerland, women form the majority of graduates from these 'other' branches.

Proportion of graduates by field of study, 1990, EUR 12



Proportion of female graduates by field of study, 1990

(%)

	EUR 12	B	DK	D (1)	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L (2)	NL	P	UK	A	FIN	IS	N	S	CH
Field 1	65	59	74	57	79	65	69	:	80	:	57	77	56*	59	72	:	:	59	54
Field 2	50	54	37	42	53	54	60	:	45	:	46	58	47*	40	57	:	:	53	32
Field 3	35	36	29	24	41	46	32	:	55	:	23	66	34	32	31	:	:	34	22
Field 4	59	70	86	70	65	66	51	:	44	:	61	72	80	60	84	:	:	83	36
Field 5	15	22	16	10	21	13	16	:	20	:	13	31	19	18	13	:	:	20	12
Field 6	62	66	68	61	55	72	63	:	58	:	55	69	58	72	65	:	:	76	49

NB: * = Estimate.
(1) Excluding the new *Länder*.
(2) Only about 1 000 students in higher education.

Teachers account for some 3% of the working population and there are about 4.5 million teachers in the European Union for 67 million pupils and students.

About 30% of the 4.5 million European teachers (full- and part-time) are in primary education, 55% at secondary level and a little under 15% in higher education. However, some teachers teach at more than one level.

On average, there are more pupils per teacher in primary (19) than in secondary education (13), except in Sweden and Denmark.

As far as primary education is concerned, the countries can be divided into two groups. In more than half of the countries — in Scandinavia (with the exception of Finland), Belgium, Austria and Portugal — there is, on average, one teacher to between 10 and 14 pupils. In the other countries the ratio is about 19 to 23 pupils per teacher (Ireland is the exception with a ratio of 27).

In secondary education, the first group of countries has a ratio of 12 pupils or less per teacher and the others have a ratio of between 14 and 17.

The ratio of pupils to teaching staff is more a theoretical than a realistic indication of class sizes. In addition, the ratio is affected by differences in the length of the school year, the number of hours of classes, the length of the teacher's working day and the division of the teacher's time between teaching and other duties.

Ratio of pupils to teaching staff, 1990/91

	First level	Second level
EUR 12	**19***	**13***
B	14	8
DK	11	11
D	21	17
GR	:	:
E	22	17
F	23	14
IRL	27	17
I	:	:
L	:	:
NL	20	16
P	13	12
UK	22	15
A	11	10
FIN	19	:
IS	:	:
N	11	9
S	10	11
EEA	18*	:
CH	:	:

NB: * = Estimate.
Source: 'Education at a glance', OECD, 1993.

In primary education, three quarters of teachers are women.

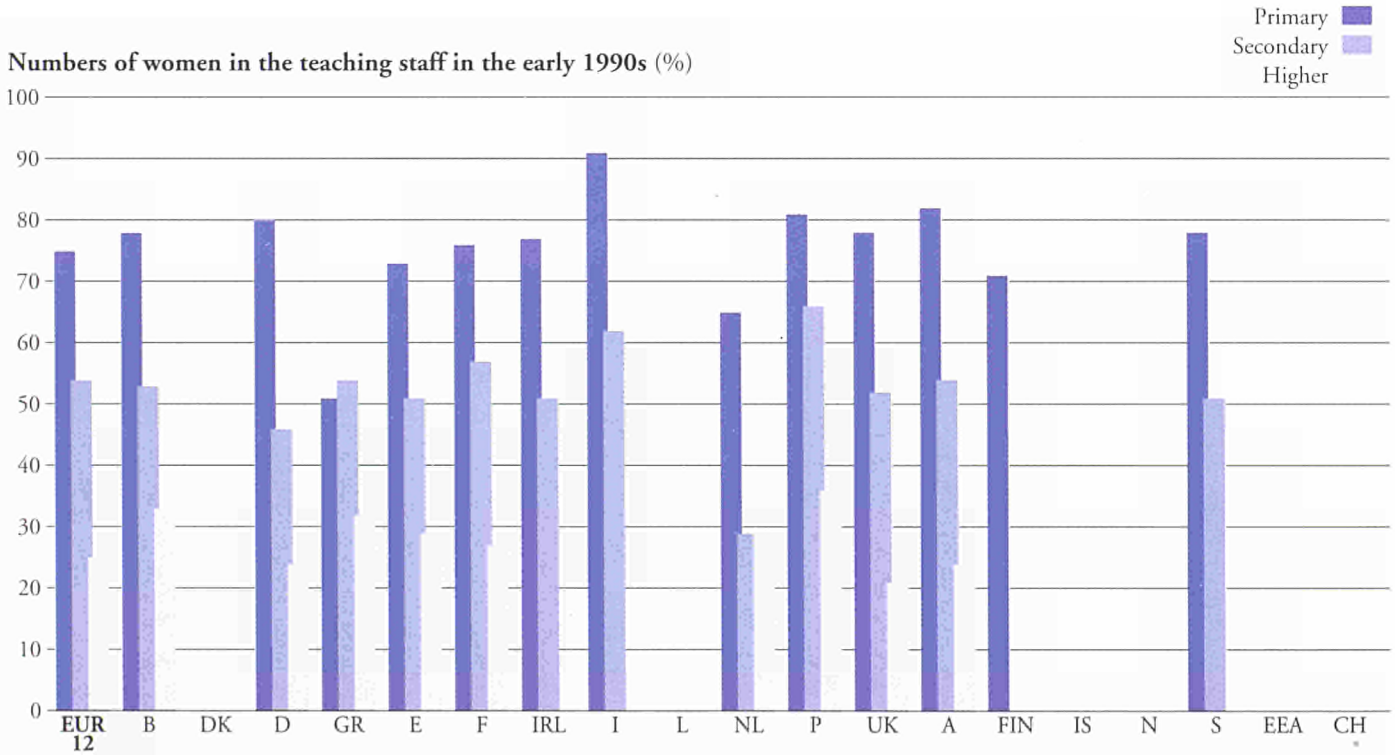
Depending on country, between 65 and 91% of primary teachers are women (except in Greece). In secondary education, the proportion of men and women is roughly equal (about 50% except in the Netherlands, where only 30% are women). In higher education, between 21 and 36% of teaching staff are women.

Three quarters of the teaching staff at the third level are men.

This male majority may be explained by the fact that a university degree is needed for teaching at this level and that those presently holding teaching positions at this level were educated before equal opportunities between the sexes were the norm in higher education.

A number of changes, such as the present greater increase in the number of female than of male students, may lead to more women third-level teachers in the future. The overall increase in the number of pupils and students, as well as the need to recruit more teachers, could also change the composition of the teaching staff.

Numbers of women in the teaching staff in the early 1990s (%)



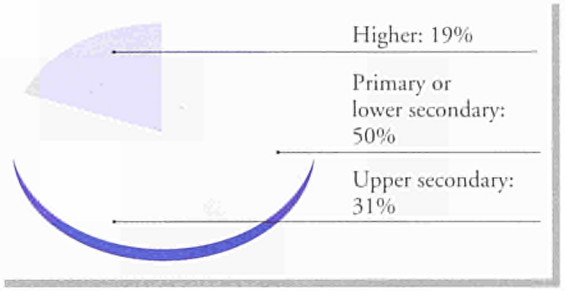
NB: Denmark, Luxembourg, Iceland, Norway and Switzerland: data not available.

A fifth of the population of Europe aged between 25 and 64 has had higher education or the equivalent.

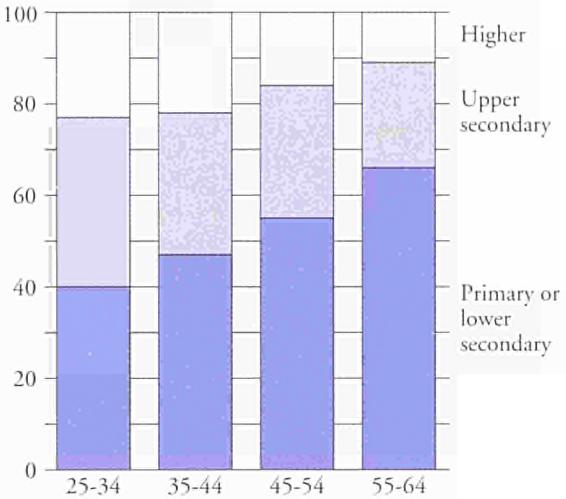
In 1992, half of the population in this age group had a level of education equivalent to that of the first stage of secondary education. The other half had gone beyond the level of compulsory schooling, with 31% of the population achieving the level of the school leaving examinations such as A levels in the UK, the baccalauréat in France and the Abitur in Germany or an apprenticeship, and 19% of the population had a third-level qualification (university or other).

In this section, the data were taken from the 1992 labour force survey. The population considered was aged between 25 and 64 as this is the section of the population normally on the labour market.

Population by level of education, 1992, EUR 12



Population of the Union by level of education and age group, 1992 (%)



In general, young people have a higher level of education than their elders.

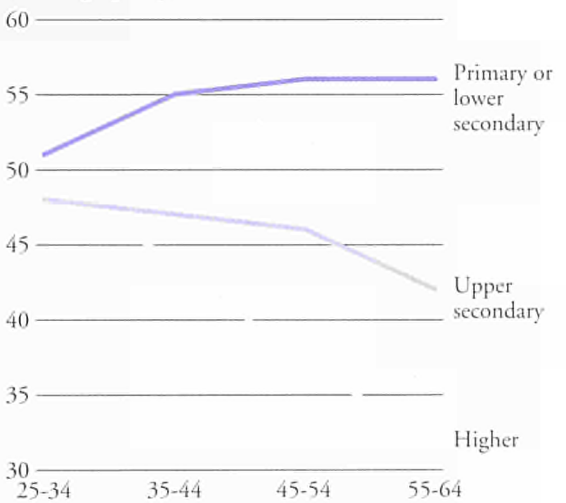
The policy of the last few decades to improve the education of the population may be considered a success if young people are compared with the older sections of the population. While 34% of the 55 to 64 age group has a level of education beyond that of compulsory schooling, the figure for the 25 to 34 age group is 60%. The same increase can be seen with respect to third-level qualifications. If the two age groups are compared, the percentage increased from 23 to 37% for upper secondary education and from 11 to 23% for higher education. The percentage of people obtaining third-level qualifications has more than doubled in the last 30 years.

The improvement in the overall level of education of the population is mainly due to increased female participation.

In the graph depicting the proportion of women in each age group who have attained a certain level of education, a figure around the 50% mark indicates equality between men and women.

Of those in the 55 to 64 age group who reached the equivalent of third level, women are underrepresented (32%) but they are overrepresented amongst those with a low level of education (56%). The proportion of women amongst young people in the 25 to 34 age group is equal to that of men at all three levels of education.

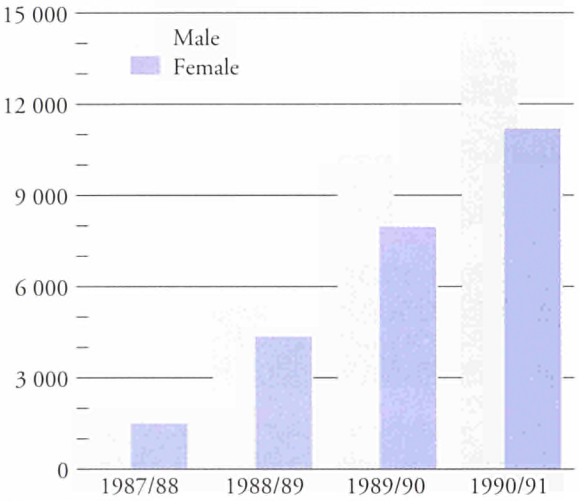
Proportion of women having achieved the highest level of qualification, 1992, EUR 12
(% of age group)



Participation in the Erasmus university exchange programme increased almost tenfold between 1987 and 1991.

The increase was especially high among female students. This was the first programme to be set up to enable students, by means of a grant, to study for several months at a university in another Member State.

Numbers of students taking part in the Erasmus programme, EUR 12



Source: Erasmus.

Comett is another Community programme. Taking labour market requirements into consideration, it focuses on three main areas.

These areas concern: training in technology, links with industry and the encouragement of cooperation at European level. Set up in 1987, this programme offers placements and student exchanges, staff exchanges and short-term training courses.

Comett, 1991

414 projects submitted, 393 projects accepted, 5 073 student placements in industry, 125 staff exchanges, 1 300 training sessions scheduled in Europe for 32 500 people, ECU 21 million granted and 4 900 organizations, of which 2 700 enterprises and 1 000 higher educational establishments, involved in projects accepted.

Legal basis: Treaty on European Union

Education and vocational training did not constitute part of the Treaty of Rome. However, Articles 126 and 127 of Chapter 3 of the Treaty establishing the European Community emphasize the importance of these areas.

Article 126
'The Community shall contribute to the development of quality education by encouraging cooperation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content of teaching and the organization of education systems and their cultural and linguistic diversity.' (Paragraph 1)

Article 127
'The Community shall implement a vocational training policy which shall support and supplement the action of the Member States, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content and organization of vocational training.' (Paragraph 1)

Pupils and students

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I
Total persons enrolled [1]									
1975/76	67 249	2 143	977	13 121	1 736	7 481	11 047	748	10 748
1980/81	67 477	2 093	1 040	12 797	1 765	8 373	11 388	808	10 900
1985/86	65 234	2 103	1 006	11 233	1 890	9 073	11 299	853	10 300
1990/91	63 878	2 058	948	10 614	1 868	8 840	11 675	877	9 632
1991/92	64 495	2 050	933	10 738	1 861	8 777	11 791	889	9 553
1991/92 [2]	67 103	:	:	13 346	:	:	:	:	:
Persons enrolled by educational level, 1991/92 [2]									
Primary (ISCED 1)	22 386	712	327	3 438	791	2 662	4 110	409	3 004
Lower secondary (ISCED 2)	16 637	373	235	4 648	443	1 987	3 275	203	2 152
Upper secondary (ISCED 3)	17 783	617	221	2 874	422	2 786	2 480	168	2 858
Higher (ISCED 5, 6, 7)	9 516	286	150	2 034	200	1 302	1 840	101	1 533
Proportion of women by level of education, 1991/92 [2]									
Upper secondary (ISCED 3)	50	50	50	46	48	52	50	50	50
Higher (ISCED 5, 6, 7)	49	48	53	41	51	51	54	47	50
Non-national students in higher education, 1991/92 [3] [4]									
Total non-national	473 896	27 378	7 008	21 436	1 474	12 235	163 841	3 753	21 788
Non-national as % of the total number of students	5.0	9.9	4.7	6.0	1.4	1.0	8.9	4.9	1.5
Non-national students by nationality [5]									
Europe	40	52	42	56	53	47	23	49	54
Of which EU	26	48	16	23	7	36	17	47	40
Of which EFTA	5	1	21	9	1	7	1	1	7
Africa	26	34	2	7	16	14	55	4	13
North America	6	2	4	5	3	9	4	20	10 [6]
South America	4	3	1	3	1	23	3	0	:
Asia	24	8	20	28	25	6	15	25	22
Other and non-specified	1	2	31	1	2	1	0	1	0
High-education diploma, 1990 [7]									
Total number [8]	1 278 212	55 897	20 329	250 329	28 956	126 779	247 740	20 544	107 024
Breakdown by field of study – women									
Humanities, religion, theology, fine arts	12	6	11	8	25	15	13	:	27
Social sciences, commerce, law	33	46	14	22	22	32	46	:	32
Exact and natural sciences, maths and computer studies	7	3	1	5	7	7	9	:	12
Medical and health sciences	20	18	31	34	22	14	5	:	13
Engineering, architecture, transport	6	6	8	5	7	2	7	:	5
Other	23	21	35	25	17	29	20	:	11
Breakdown by field of study – men									
Humanities, religion, theology, fine arts	6	5	4	5	8	11	6	:	7
Social sciences, commerce, law	31	46	25	23	22	37	28	:	38
Exact and natural sciences, maths and computer studies	13	5	3	11	12	11	17	:	10
Medical and health sciences	8	9	5	11	13	10	4	:	17
Engineering, architecture, transport	29	22	43	37	30	15	35	:	21
Other	13	13	18	12	16	15	10	:	8

NB: * = Estimate.

[1] Total of all levels including special education (figures for pre-primary education are not included owing to problems of comparability).

[2] Germany: the new *Länder* are included; Netherlands: primary education begins at least one year earlier than in the other Member States; Portugal: data for 1990/91.

[3] Belgium, Greece and Italy: data for 1990/91.

[4] Ireland: full-time only; Italy: universities only.

L	NL	P	UK	A	FIN	IS	N	S	EEA	CH
										(in thousands)
49	3 811	1 746	13 642	1 553	988	57	804	1 247	71 898	:
50	3 888	1 826	12 549	1 472	944	56	853	1 301	72 103	1 204
50	3 714	1 987	11 726	1 368	923	57	822	1 429	69 833	1 127
49	3 553	1 970	11 794	1 323	983	61	843	1 366	68 093	1 116
49	3 537	2 024*	12 295	1 352	1 013	62	878	1 382	69 182	1 127
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	71 790	:
										(in thousands)
25	1 408	941*	4 560	379	393	26	308	584	24 076	414
12	753	496*	2 060	357	207	12	157	293	17 663	275
11	773	396*	4 177	400	240	18	259	297	18 997	288
1	494	191*	1 385	217	174	6	154	207	10 274	143
										(%)
48	47	53	53	45	57	:	:	50	50	45
50	45	60*	49	46	53	:	53	54	49	35
:	10 439	6 238*	99 581	20 199	1 899	:	7 779	:	:	24 412
:	2.3	3.3	8.3	10.0	1.6	:	4.8	:	:	17.1
										(%)
:	57	14	38	66	43	:	32	:	:	:
:	39	14	30	52	17	:	19	:	:	:
:	4	0	4	3	12	:	9	:	:	:
:	10	59	12	4	16	:	9	:	:	:
:	4	3	10	3	8	:	6	:	:	:
:	13	21	2	1	2	:	2	:	:	:
:	15	0	38	23	30	:	29	:	:	:
:	1	2	1	3	1	:	22	:	:	:
:	62 354	11 034	347 226	15 793	24 176	:	:	36 628	:	12 211
										(%)
:	13	22	8*	19	9	:	:	3	:	27
:	29	30	32*	23	16	:	:	12	:	32
:	2	6	8	5	5	:	:	3	:	11
:	21	10	23	16	37	:	:	36	:	18
:	5	8	6	6	6	:	:	11	:	3
:	30	25	22	30	27	:	:	34	:	9
										(%)
:	8	8	11*	6	4	:	:	3	:	12
:	28	28	34*	34	13	:	:	14	:	35
:	5	5	5	15	13	:	:	7	:	19
:	11	11	6	6	8	:	:	9	:	16
:	27	27	27	25	45	:	:	54	:	12
:	21	20	18	15	17	:	:	13	:	5

[5] The data are broken down by nationality (%); France, Austria, Finland: universities only; Portugal: 1989/90; United Kingdom: 1990/91; Germany: the new *Länder* are excluded.
[6] Includes South America.
[7] EUR 12: excluding Ireland and Luxembourg.
[8] France: 1991 data; Portugal: 1989 data; Italy: ISCED 7 data not available.

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WORKING POPULATION

ECONOMIC ACTIVITY

The Community's economically active population currently numbers over 157 million people, or 55% of the population aged 15 or over. Some 14 million (9.2%) of them are unemployed.

Since 1986, the economically active population has been tending to rise as women have joined the labour force in increasing numbers.

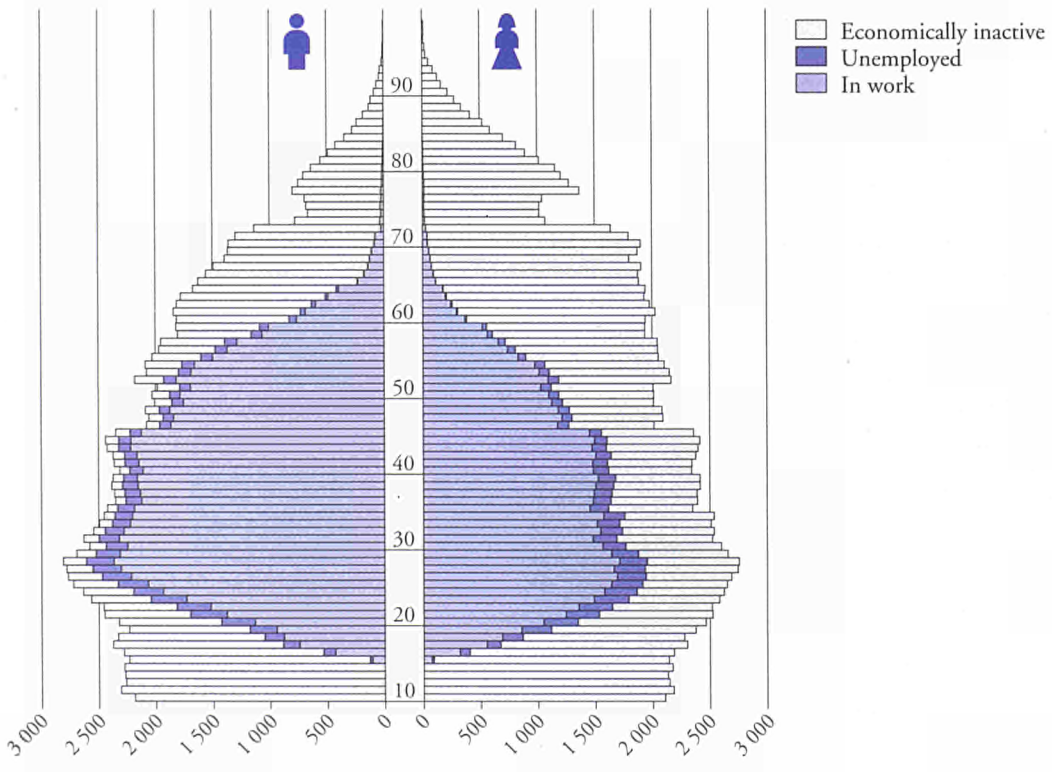
Denmark has the highest economic activity rate in the European Union.

In the near future, by 2000, it is likely that young people will constitute a smaller group on the labour market and older people a larger one.

In 1992, 126 million people, i.e. 45% of the population aged 15 and over, were economically inactive, 40% of them retired and 18% in education (at school or an institute of higher education). In 1987, only 25% of the economically inactive population were retired.

In 1992, the inactivity rate of married mothers was higher than that of single mothers: 46 and 34% respectively.

Structure of the population by age and sex, 1992 (EUR 12)



In 1992, the economically active population of what is now the European Union numbered over 150 million people.

According to the labour force survey (LFS) held in that year, 154 million people aged 15 or over who lived in private households were economically active, with 14 million of them unemployed. If collective households are added to private, the number of economically active persons rises to an estimated 157 million.

Some 124 million people (45% of the EU population) were outside the labour force: 40% of them were retired and 18% in education.

Between 1986 and 1992, there was a steady increase in the economically active population of the Communities. Up to 1990, more and more people were in work, with numbers then remaining steady until 1992.

The structure of the population shows that economic activity and inactivity are not distributed evenly between the sexes or among the age groups.

In the 25 to 49 age group, over 90% of men are economically active. The highest proportion of women, 71%, is in the 25 to 29 age group. Proportionately more young people are unemployed.

Economically active and inactive population, 1992, EUR 12

(in thousands)

Population aged 15 or over (private households)
278 689

Active 154 413		Inactive 124 276			
With a job	Without work and seeking work	Pupils and students	Retired	Disabled	Other
140 176	14 237	22 650	50 211	4 627	46 788

The ***economically active population,*** or labour force, includes persons aged 15 or over who are in work plus the unemployed.

The ***economic activity rate,*** or labour force participation rate, measures the number of persons who are economically active as a percentage of the total population aged 15 or over.

The ***economically inactive population*** comprises persons aged 15 or over who are not seeking work because they are at school or an institute of higher education, because they are retired or disabled, or for other reasons.

The ***economic inactivity rate*** measures the number of persons not economically active as a percentage of the total population aged 15 or over.

Eurostat labour force projections estimate the economically active population of the 18 EEA countries by sex and age for the period 1990 to 2020. They are based on two population scenarios, the 'high' and the 'low', and two series of hypotheses on labour force participation.

The 'low' scenario is pessimistic about developments in the economy. It combines stagnation with high unemployment, labour-market restraint, fierce competition and no obvious improvement in opportunities for bringing up children while working.

The result would be a continuation of previous trends in labour-force participation: a slowdown over time, with no clear-cut convergence among countries or between the sexes.

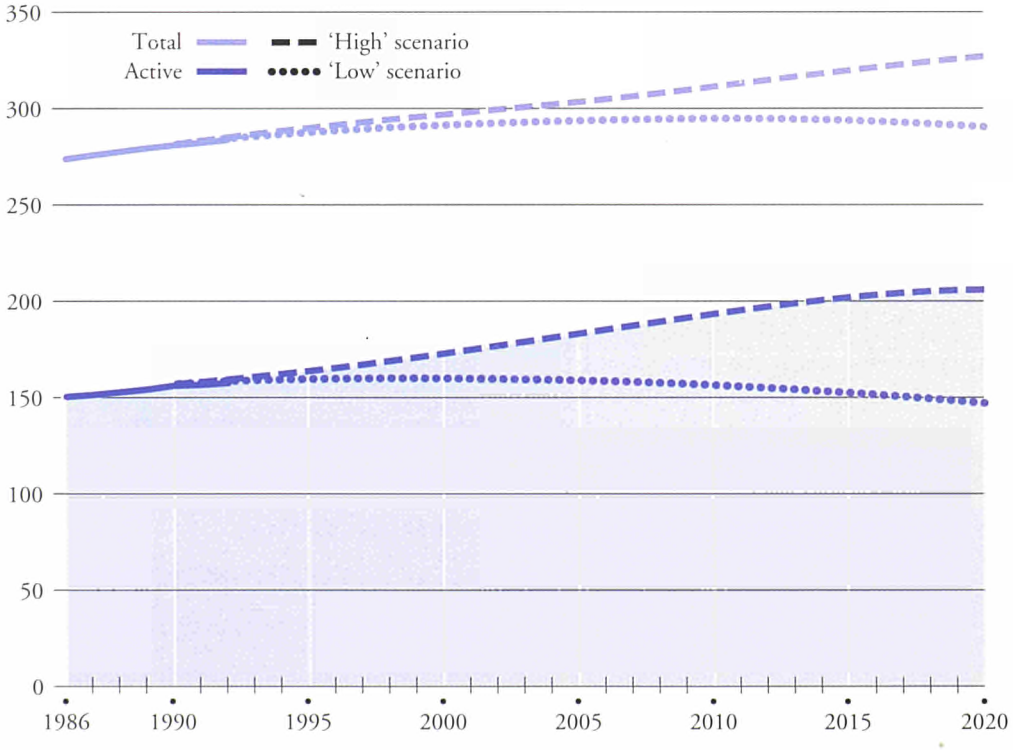
The 'high' scenario supposes a conjunction of positive factors which improve access to the labour market, combined with the high population growth scenario.

The result would be an increase in numbers of young people in the labour force; a gradual rise in numbers of women, with every possible opportunity for combining work with child-rearing thanks, in particular, to part-time work; a cessation of previous tendencies towards early retirement, and convergence among countries and between the sexes, with high levels of economic activity.

The economically active population is tending to increase.

According to the 'high' scenario, an increase of over 10% per annum is likely. Even with the 'low' scenario, the labour force would continue to increase slightly up to the end of the century. In the longer term, a further increase in the labour force seems just as likely as a gradual decline.

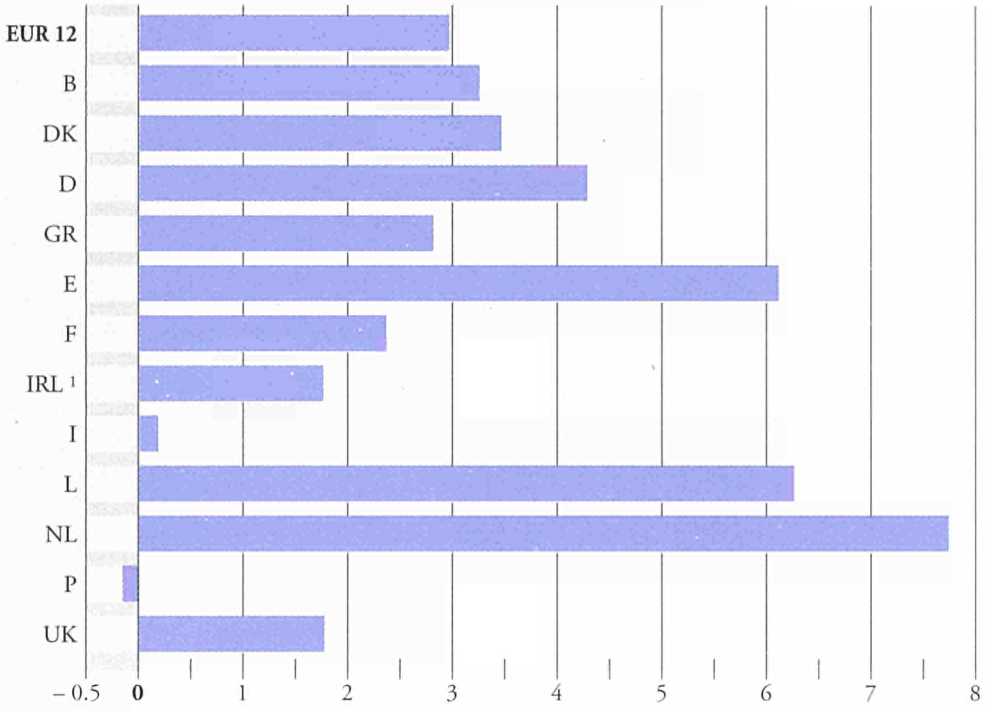
Population aged 15 or over, EUR 12 (million)



The rise in the economically active population is due mainly to the increase in numbers of women at work.

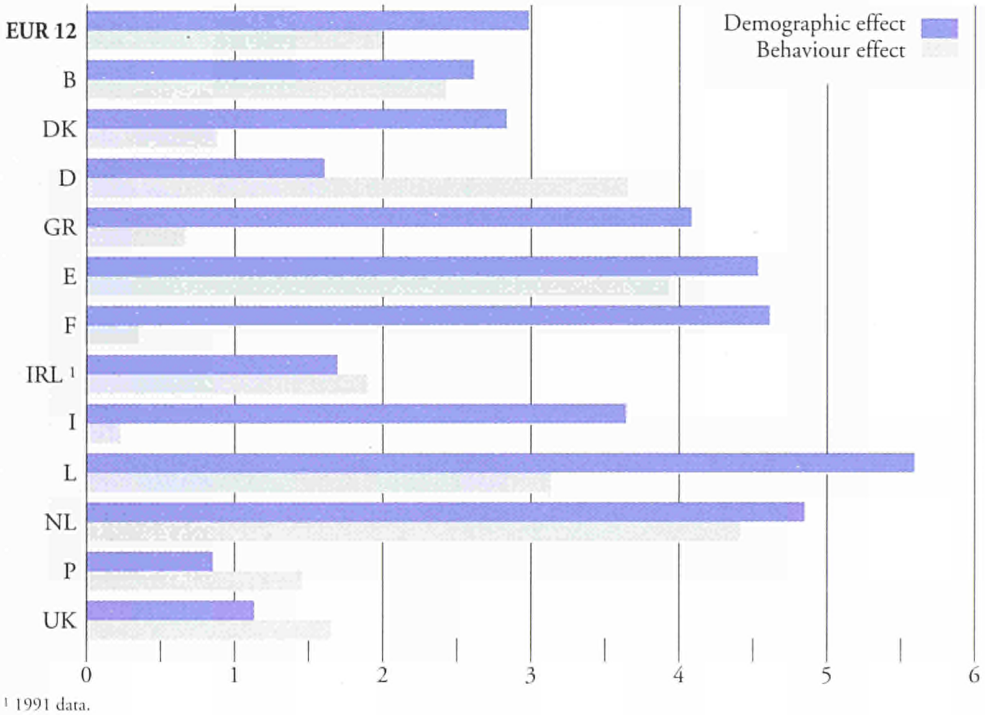
Between 1986 and 1992, the number of women who were economically active rose by an estimated 11%, whereas the number of men stayed virtually the same. The overall change in the labour force between 1987 and 1992 was around 3%. For both sexes, the increase was in line with changes in the age structure of the Union's population. The evolution in the number of women on the labour market would have led to a 2% increase in the economically active total if it had not been offset by a fall in the participation rate for men. The Netherlands recorded the greatest change in female economic activity: the total labour force rose by 8%, with 4% of the increase due to demographic changes and 4% to the modified behaviour of women as regards work outside the home.

Overall change in the economically active population, 1987-92 (%)



1 1991 data.

Change in the economically active population resulting from changes in demography and in the behaviour of women, 1987-92 (%)



1 1991 data.

The ***demographic effect*** is the change in the economically active population resulting from changes in the population of working age.

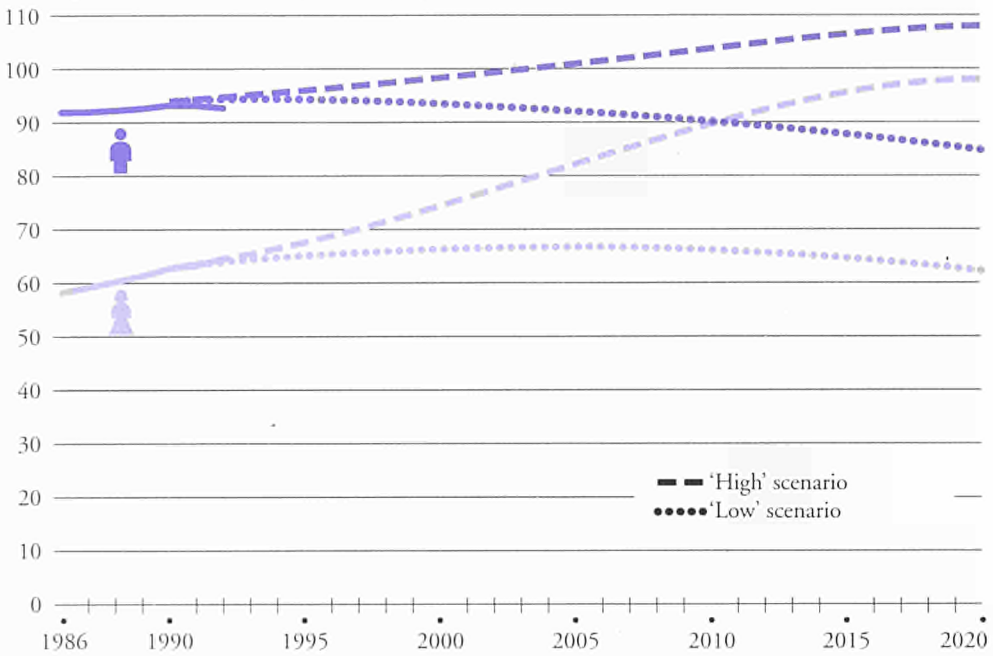
The ***behaviour effect*** is the change in the economically active population resulting from the increase in the female participation rate.

Women are expected to continue to play a major role on the labour market.

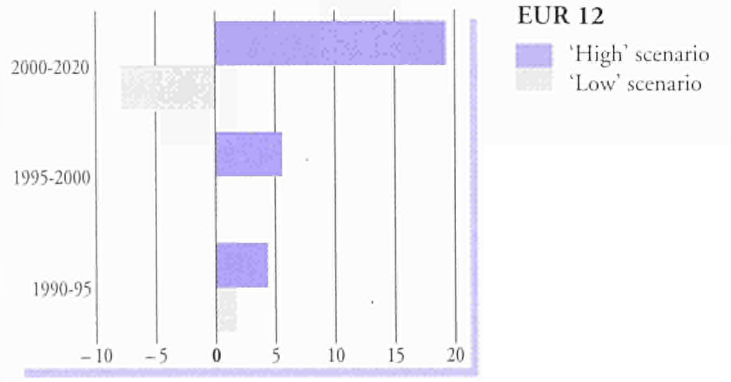
The 'high' labour-force scenario suggests a net long-term (1990 to 2000) increase of over 50% in numbers of women on the labour market whereas the 'low' scenario predicts stagnation. For men, a smaller change is expected: only 15% up according to the 'high' scenario and 10% down according to the 'low' scenario.

The 'high' scenario predicts that in the longer term two thirds of the increase in the economically active population will be due to the greater participation of women on the labour market, from 40.1% of the labour force in 1990 to 47.6% in 2020 according to the 'high' scenario, or to 42.3% according to the 'low' scenario.

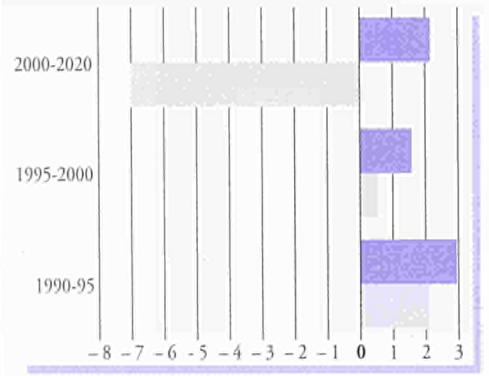
Change in the economically active population by sex, EUR 12 (million)



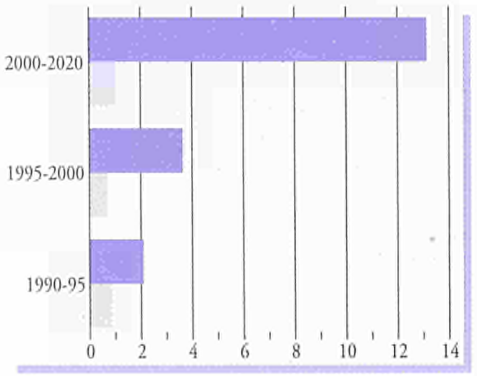
Overall change in the economically active population, 1990-2020 (%)



Change in the economically active population resulting from the demographic effect, 1990-2020 (%)



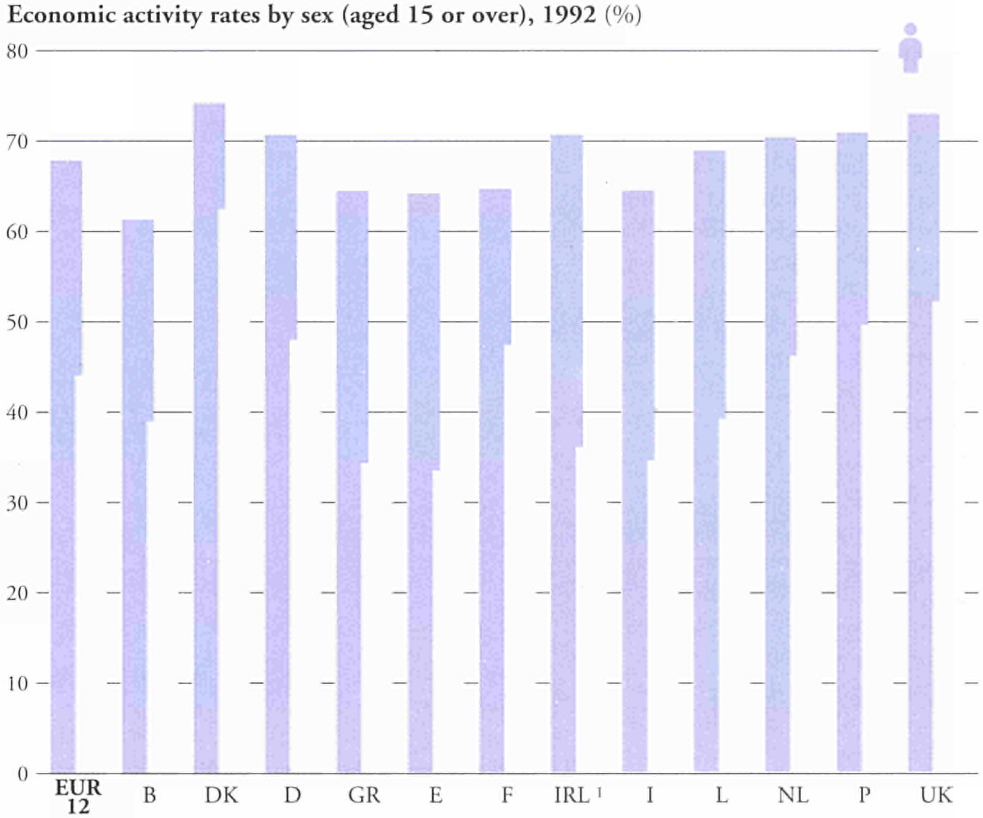
Change in the economically active population resulting from the behaviour effect, 1990-2020 (%)



Denmark holds the record for labour force participation.

In 1992, an average of around 68% of men and 44% of women in the Community were economically active. The highest female rates were in Denmark (62.4%) and the United Kingdom (52.1%). The southern European countries had the lowest rates: 33.4% in Spain, 34.2% in Greece and 34.5% in Italy. The differences were smaller for men than for women, with Denmark again having the highest rate at 74.1%. The lowest rate was for Belgium: 61.2%.

Economic activity rates by sex (aged 15 or over), 1992 (%)



1 1991 data.

Economically active population

(in thousands)

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
1986	150 081	4 040	2 865	37 009	3 957	14 005	24 393	1 335	23 558	156	5 992	4 716	28 054
1987	151 106	3 966	2 838	37 030	3 936	14 460	24 289	1 341	23 472	160	6 587	4 767	28 260
1988	152 448	3 917	2 899	37 335	4 003	14 762	24 194	1 336	23 966	157	6 592	4 792	28 496
1989	153 864	3 964	2 903	37 771	4 023	14 954	24 393	1 324	23 715	158	6 700	4 884	29 076
1990	155 810	3 941	2 922	39 421	4 035	15 117	24 337	1 332	23 734	161	6 858	4 919	29 033
1991	156 266	4 021	2 916	39 313	3 958	15 101	24 489	1 355	24 086	166	6 968	5 067	28 825
1992	157 183	4 114	2 950	39 694	4 065	15 413	24 976	1 376	23 662	171	7 129	4 780	28 893
2000 'low'	159 632	4 008	2 866	37 487	4 225	17 096	26 072	1 421	24 588	160	7 169	5 306	29 234
2000 'high'	172 535	4 421	3 148	41 252	4 675	18 478	27 802	1 637	26 798	184	7 794	5 712	30 632
2020 'low'	146 880	3 579	2 586	33 156	3 973	16 000	24 905	1 290	21 135	148	6 746	5 125	28 236
2020 'high'	205 789	5 425	3 518	48 685	5 986	22 712	33 353	2 249	31 213	256	9 858	7 160	35 374

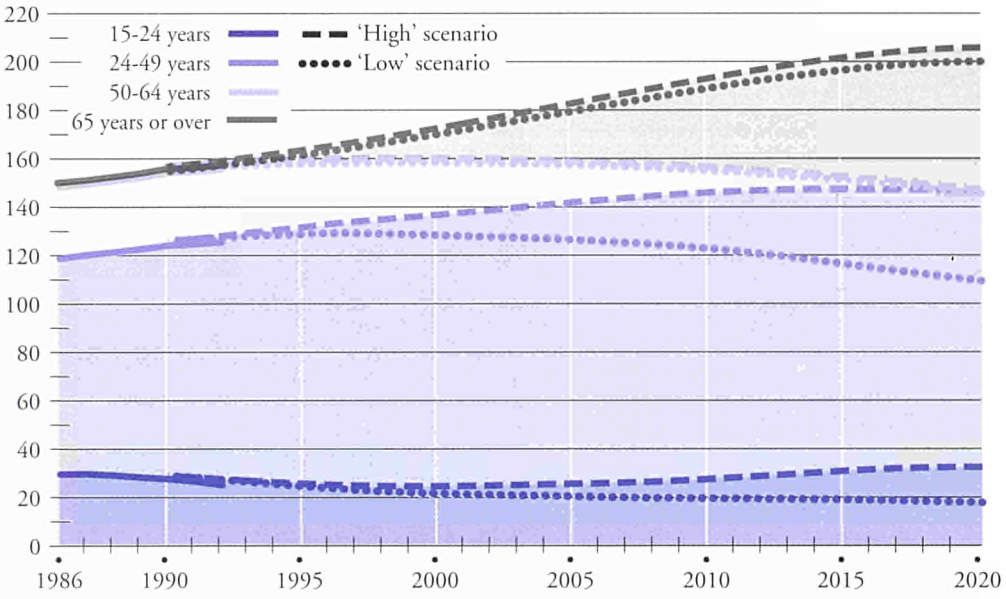
NB: 1986-92: total population estimates.

The share of young people in the labour force is declining whereas the share of older people is tending to rise.

With the fall in birth rates and young people staying on longer at school, the 'young' labour force (15- to 24-year-olds) is declining. Since 1986 (when 29 million young people were economically active) the EU has lost 4.5 million in this category. The 'low' scenario suggests that numbers will continue to fall until by 2020 there are only some 18 million young people who are economically active. This is around 40% fewer than at present. The 'high' scenario suggests that the downward trend will bottom out early in 2000 and that the number of young people on the labour market will begin to rise again (to 32 million in 2020).

At the other end of the scale, there are currently 30 million economically active 50- to 64-year-olds. Over the next 25 years, the 'high' scenario predicts an 85% increase and the 'low' a 25% rise. The size of the group which makes up the bulk of the labour force — the 25- to 49-year-olds — is expected to be roughly the same in 2020 as in 1986.

Economically active population by major age groups, EUR 12 (million)



Denmark and the United Kingdom have the highest percentages of young people in the labour force.

The current figures for the economically active in the European Union are 54% of men aged 15 to 24 and 47% of women. For both men and women, the figures are highest in Denmark, with very little difference between the two rates: 73% of men and 71% of women. The lowest rates for young men are in Belgium (37%) and for young women in Greece (33%).

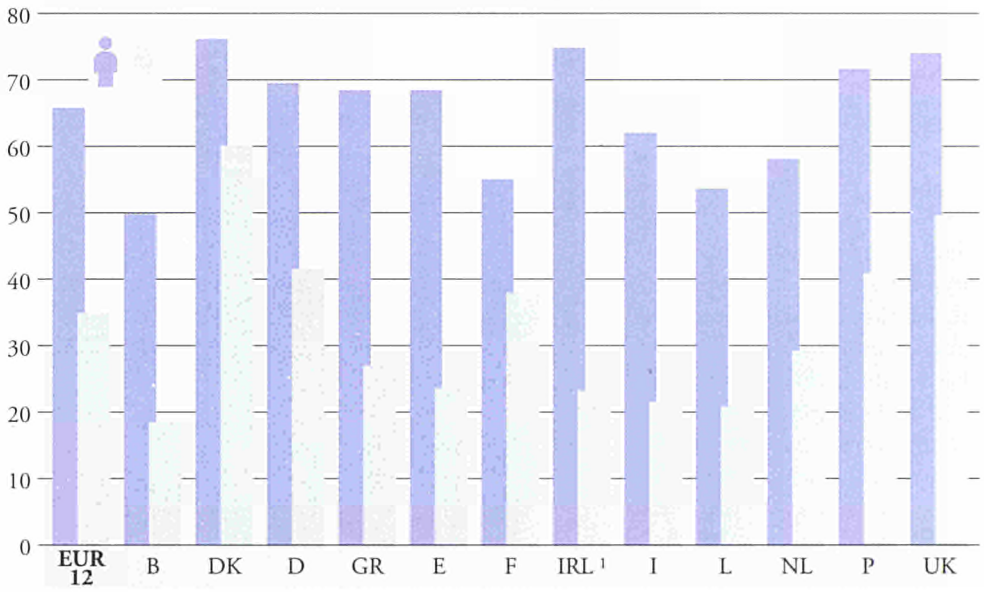
Economic activity rates for the 16- to 24-year age group, 1992 (%)

[1] 1991 data.

The proportion of the labour force aged from 50 to 64 varies considerably from country to country.

In the Union as a whole, roughly two thirds of men and one third of women in this group are economically active. For men, the highest percentages are in Denmark and Ireland, where some three quarters are in the labour force. Belgium has the lowest percentage (50%). For women, the figures are again highest in Denmark, at 60%; in all the other countries the rates are below 50% or even — in Belgium, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg and Spain — below 25%.

Economic activity rates for the 60- to 64-year age group, 1992 (%)



1 1991 data.

Economic activity rates by sex

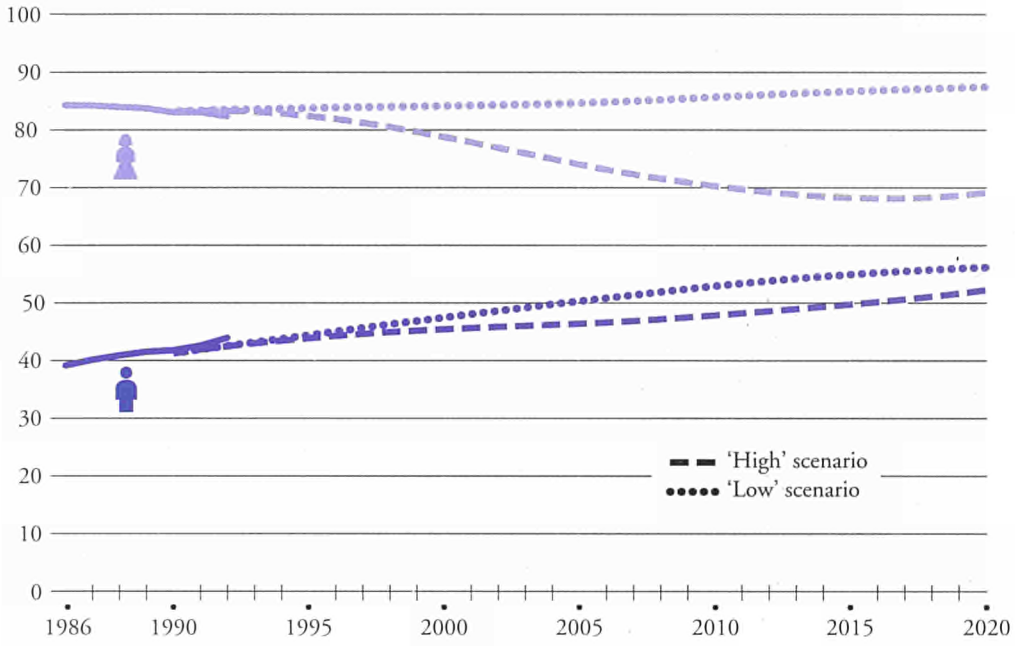
(% of persons aged 15 or over)

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Men													
1986	70.1	63.8	74.6	71.8	69.0	68.2	68.7	73.2	68.1	70.0	67.6	73.4	73.9
1987	69.6	62.6	73.4	71.9	67.9	67.1	67.9	72.5	67.4	70.2	71.0	72.4	73.8
1988	69.3	61.7	75.4	72.0	67.9	66.3	67.0	72.2	66.8	68.9	70.1	71.9	74.1
1989	69.0	61.5	75.2	71.8	66.8	65.8	66.6	71.1	65.9	68.7	70.2	72.3	74.5
1990	69.0	61.0	75.1	72.5	65.8	66.1	65.9	70.7	65.7	67.7	70.8	71.7	74.4
1991	68.6	61.4	74.3	71.9	64.7	65.3	64.7	70.6	66.7	68.8	71.0	72.6	73.8
1992	67.8	61.2	74.1	70.6	64.4	64.1	64.6	68.7	64.4	68.7	70.3	70.8	72.9
2000 'low'	66.3	58.7	73.0	67.3	62.7	65.8	62.9	68.0	64.1	64.4	67.1	71.0	71.4
2000 'high'	68.4	61.5	77.0	69.7	64.6	67.6	65.3	70.9	66.2	67.1	69.7	72.9	72.6
2020 'low'	60.2	51.7	65.7	60.6	59.3	61.2	56.3	63.1	57.2	56.1	57.3	66.8	66.3
2020 'high'	67.4	62.0	75.0	68.3	66.5	67.6	64.5	72.3	64.8	66.5	68.1	73.1	70.5
Women													
1986	40.9	36.9	60.8	43.6	34.6	27.7	47.1	33.8	34.1	34.7	35.1	45.5	49.2
1987	41.3	36.6	60.4	43.7	34.5	30.3	46.9	34.9	34.2	35.7	41.5	46.3	50.0
1988	41.8	36.4	60.8	44.4	35.7	31.7	46.7	34.4	34.7	34.2	41.8	46.6	50.6
1989	42.3	36.2	60.5	44.7	35.7	32.0	46.8	34.6	35.1	34.5	42.3	47.2	52.1
1990	43.0	36.6	61.5	47.2	35.4	32.6	46.7	35.4	35.0	33.7	43.9	47.5	52.5
1991	43.2	38.0	61.7	46.9	33.1	32.6	46.9	36.0	36.0	35.7	44.8	49.9	52.3
1992	44.0	38.9	62.4	47.9	34.2	33.4	47.3	36.8	34.5	39.1	46.1	49.5	52.1
2000 'low'	44.1	37.8	61.0	44.8	34.7	37.3	47.2	36.5	36.4	35.0	45.1	50.0	53.0
2000 'high'	48.6	43.0	67.0	49.5	40.3	42.3	50.7	43.7	41.7	41.3	49.8	54.4	56.2
2020 'low'	41.6	34.7	55.9	43.2	33.4	35.9	43.6	33.0	32.5	33.1	41.8	47.3	51.1
2020 'high'	58.7	54.7	69.7	60.7	54.4	55.6	57.7	59.8	52.9	55.7	59.9	65.2	63.5

Despite the ageing of the population, numbers of those who are not economically active could stabilize as more women join the labour force.

Between 1986 and 1992, there was a slight increase in numbers of people who were not part of the labour force. This was due to an increase in the male rate which was offset by a fall in the female rate (estimate for the total population).

Population aged 15 or over not economically active, by sex, EUR 12 (million)



Population not economically active, 1992

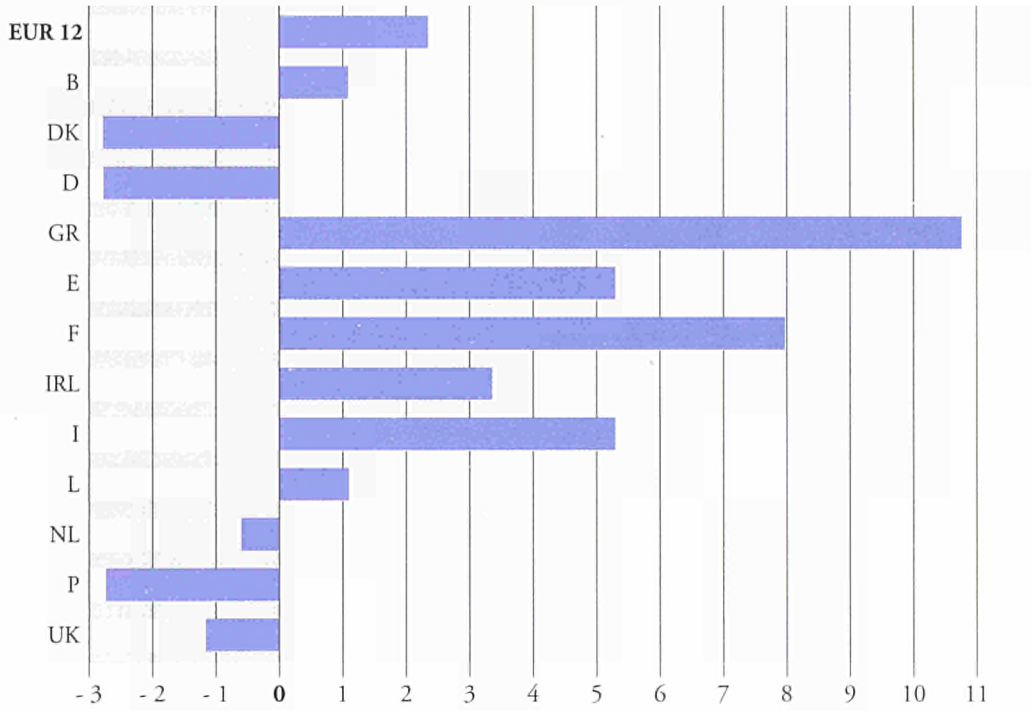
(in thousands)

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
1986	123 402	4 106	1 392	27 608	3 834	16 021	18 487	1 201	23 313	146	5 741	3 348	18 205
1987	124,335	4 168	1 445	27 806	3 933	16 139	18 909	1 207	23 737	147	5 240	3 429	18 176
1988	124 799	4 195	1 406	27 484	3 922	16 264	19 230	1 224	24 203	151	5 312	3 475	17 935
1989	125 205	4 282	1 419	27 515	4 008	16 506	19 444	1 235	24 253	154	5 328	3 492	17 568
1990	124 763	4 291	1 398	26 676	4 130	16 512	19 675	1 232	24 436	158	5 226	3 541	17 488
1991	125 562	4 207	1 411	27 311	4 328	16 688	20 142	1 240	23 891	156	5 199	3 399	17 591
1992	126 186	4 164	1 378	27 827	4 286	16 561	19 954	1 238	24 680	148	5 145	3 256	17 549
2000 'low'	131 433	4 355	1 418	29 836	4 518	16 320	21 520	1 308	24 823	165	5 650	3 533	17 986
2000 'high'	124 051	4 082	1 230	28 352	4 293	15 373	20 299	1 226	23 299	158	5 287	3 322	17 132
2020 'low'	143 392	4 759	1 674	31 070	4 652	17 189	25 213	1 405	26 439	187	6 915	3 913	19 977
2020 'high'	121 089	3 881	1 348	26 867	3 935	14 207	21 304	1 158	21 941	164	5 555	3 217	17 474

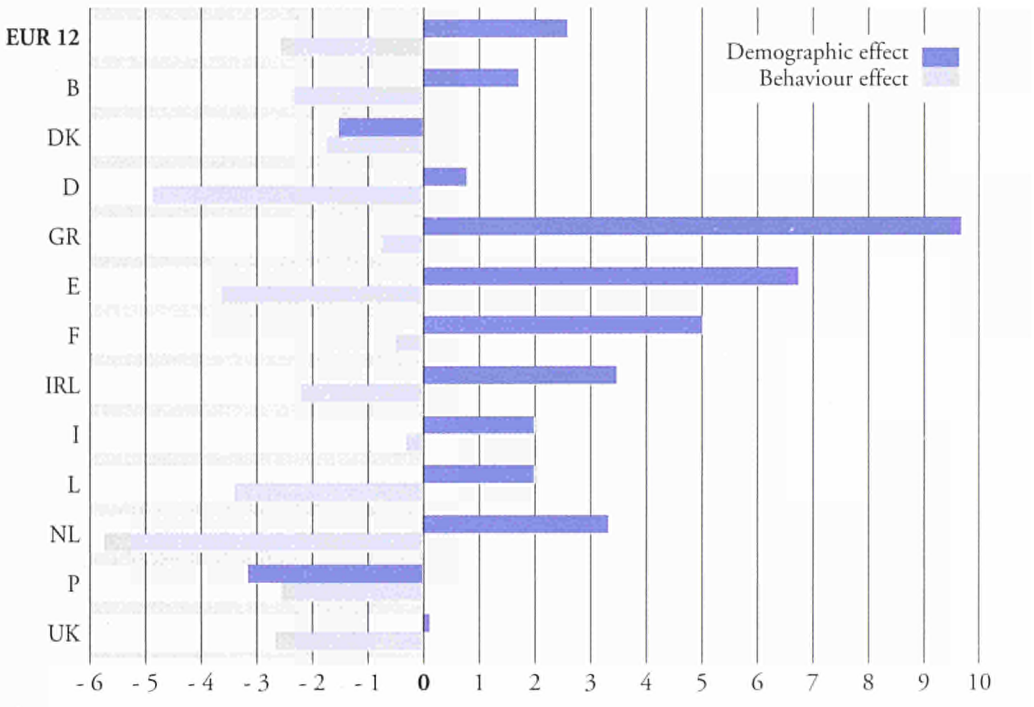
With more and more women coming onto the labour market, the economically inactive share of the population has declined.

Calculations based on LFS data show that, in the five years leading up to 1992, the rise in the female participation rate had a considerable impact on economically inactive totals, which fell by 2.5%. Demographic changes in the age structure would have suggested a 2.6% rise in the economically inactive population over the same period, with marked variations from country to country. The projections estimated a 9.7% rise in Greece and a 3.1% fall in Portugal. There was in fact in a 10.8% rise in Greece and a 2.7% fall in Portugal.

Overall change in the economically inactive population, 1987-92 (%)



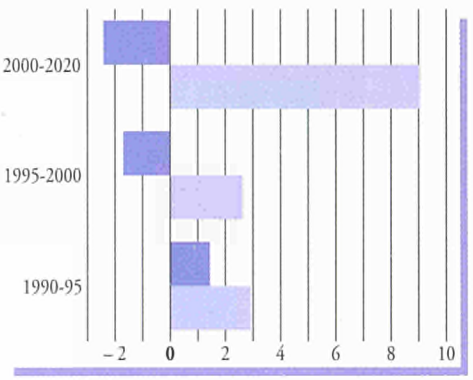
Change in the economically inactive population resulting from demographic and behaviour effects, 1987-92 (%)



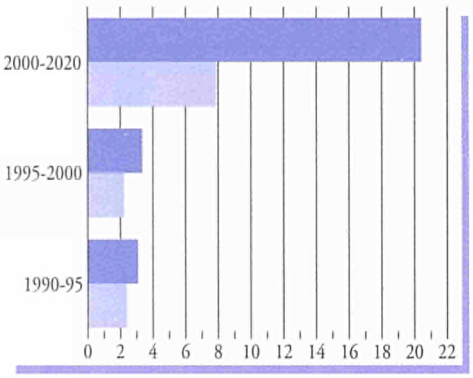
If present trends were to slow down, numbers of both men and women who were not part of the labour force would start to rise again.

The two scenarios would appear to illustrate the major impact of demographic changes — the ageing of the population and the consequent rise in numbers of retired people — on the economically inactive population. However, the increased participation of women on the labour market will lessen this effect somewhat, especially in the 'high' scenario, which estimates a slight fall in the number of economically inactive people in the medium term.

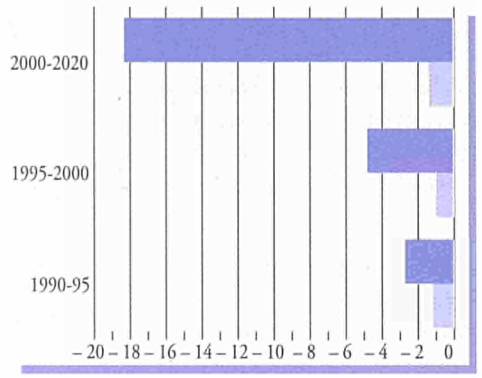
Overall change in the economically inactive population, 1990-2020 (%)



Change in the economically inactive population arising from the demographic effect, 1990-2020 (%)



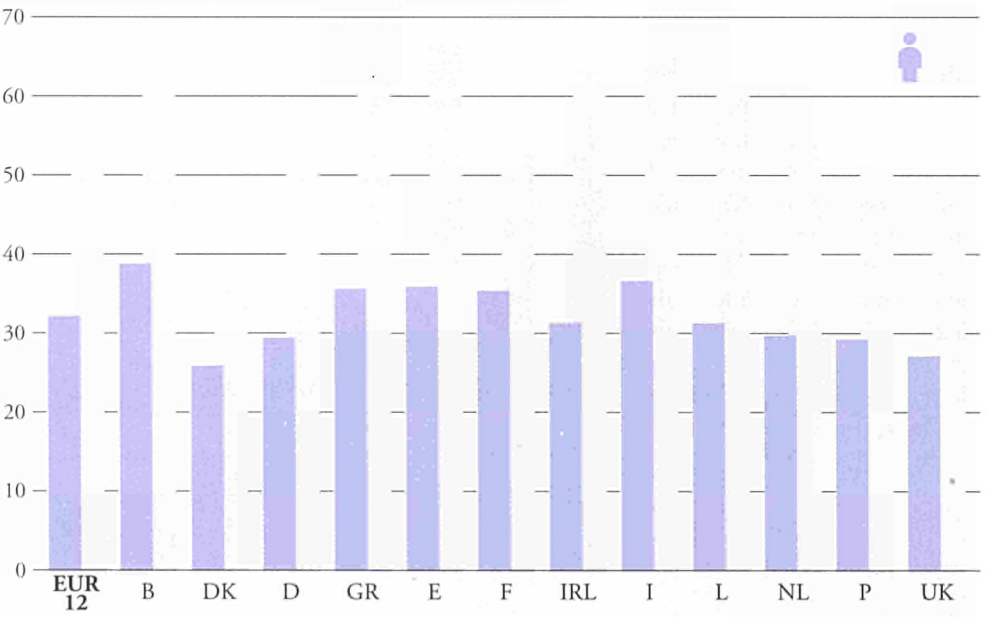
Change in the economically inactive population arising from the behaviour effect, 1990-2020 (%)



One third of men aged 15 or over are outside the labour force.

In the Union as a whole, 32% of men and 56% of women are not involved in the labour market. As would be suggested by the labour force participation rates for the population aged 15 or over, Belgium has the highest economic inactivity rate for men and Spain for women.

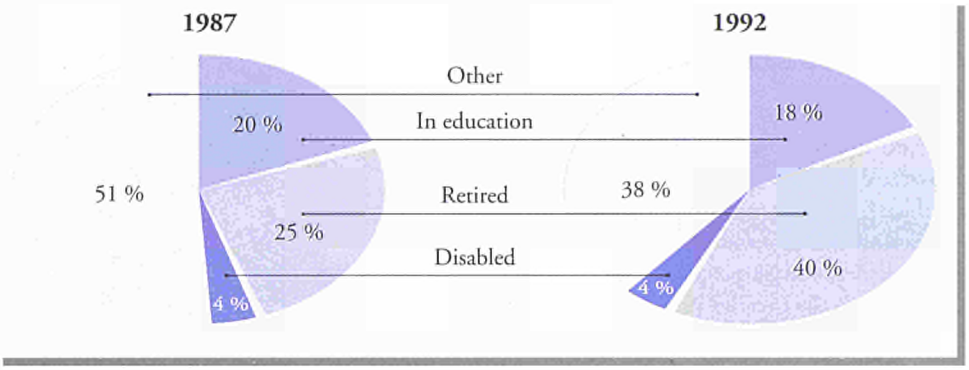
Economic inactivity rates by sex, population aged 15 or over, 1992 (%)



There were considerable changes in the composition of the economically inactive population between 1987 and 1992.

Whereas retired people made up 25% in 1987, five years later they accounted for 40%. This increase is due in part to changes in the age structure of the population and to the increasing number of women on the labour market, but it is likely to result also from the tendency towards earlier retirement.

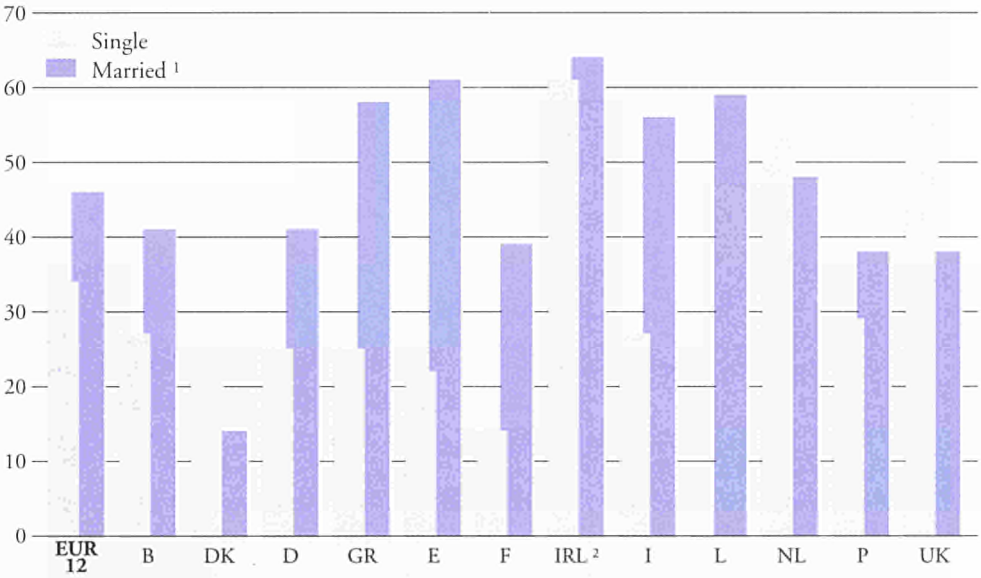
Structure of the economically inactive population, EUR 12



Whether or not women form part of the labour force depends to a great extent on the composition of the household and in particular on whether it contains young children.

In 1992, the economic inactivity rate for women aged 25 to 49 and living alone was 34% as against 46% for married women in the same age group. When there were one or more children aged up to 14 years, the rate was slightly higher for married women and very much lower for those living alone. The largest differences between the rates for married and single mothers were in Greece, Italy and Spain, where between 56 and 64% of married mothers were outside the labour force compared with only 22 to 27% of single mothers. The opposite was the case in Denmark, the Netherlands and, more particularly, the United Kingdom, where the rate was much higher for single women than for married women.

Economic inactivity rates for mothers with children aged 0 to 14 years, 1992 (%)



NB: Luxembourg (for married women) and France: no data available.
1 Including those cohabiting.
2 1991 data.

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WORKING POPULATION

EMPLOYMENT

In 1992, around 140 million of the 345 million people in the European Union had a job.

Some 50.3% of the population of working age (over 15) has a job.

The 'employment ratio' is higher for men than for women (62% of men aged over 15 have a job compared with 39% of women), but the proportion of women rose from 38.2% in 1987 to 40.4% in 1992.

Between 1987 and 1992, the number of persons in employment rose by 7.4 million, i.e. 5.8% (excluding the former German Democratic Republic).

Of all jobs 61% are now in the services sector, and only 6% in agriculture.

Over 82% of persons with a job are employees.

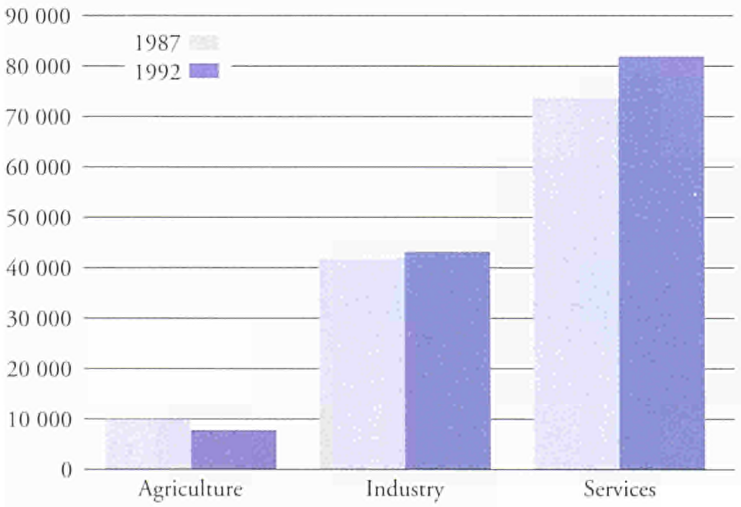
Under 5% of men with a job work part time, as against almost 30% of women.

Some 14 million people — and more women than men — are employed on fixed-term contracts.

One in 12 of those employed is undergoing some form of education or training.

One employed person in 40 has more than one job.

Total employment by sector, EUR 12 (in thousands)



NB: 1992: the data refer to the territory prior to German unification.

In 1992, for every 100 people in the European Union of working age, an average of 50 were actually in employment.

The employment ratio is highest in Denmark (over 60%) and lowest in Spain (under 40%). At Community level, almost two thirds of men aged 15 or over are actually in employment. The average employment ratio for women is 39%.

Of the 140 million people with a job, 40.4% are women.

This percentage is a Community average, exceeded by Denmark (46.3%), the United Kingdom (44.5%), Portugal (44.1%), France (43.3%) and Germany (41.7%).

In 1987, 126 million people were in work. Since the Communities did not at that time include what are now the new *Länder* of Germany, the increase in the number of people with a job was 7.4 million, or 5.8%, between 1987 and 1992.

The vast majority of the additional 7.4 million jobs was created in services.

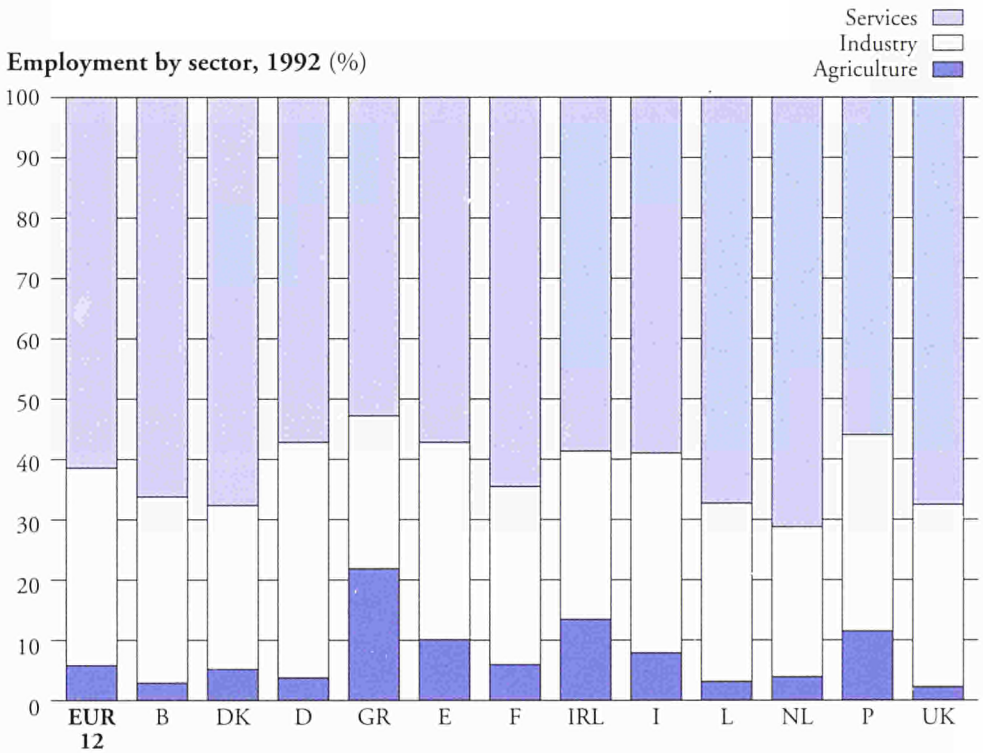
Some 80 million are employed in this sector, over 10% more than in 1987. Part of this increase, however, is offset by the loss of almost a quarter of the jobs in agriculture, while in industry the number of persons employed rose by only 4% after 1987.

Because of the long-standing trend towards services, this sector accounts for 61% of total employment in the present territory of the European Union, compared with 33% for industry and only 6% for agriculture.

Number of people employed, 1992

	Total (in thousands)	Men (%)	Women (%)	Employment ratio Total (%)	Employment ratio Men (%)	Employment ratio Women (%)
EUR 12	140 165	59.6	40.4	50.3	62.5	39.1
B	3 770	60.6	39.4	46.3	58.2	35.2
DK	2 637	53.6	46.3	62.0	67.9	56.2
D	36 528	58.3	41.7	55.0	67.1	43.9
GR	3 680	65.2	34.8	44.8	61.2	29.8
E	12 458	67.1	32.9	39.6	55.4	25.0
F	22 021	56.7	43.3	49.8	59.3	41.2
IRL	1 139	65.0	35.0	44.7	58.5	31.2
I	21 015	64.9	35.1	44.2	60.0	29.8
L	165	63.0	37.0	52.5	67.6	38.0
NL	6 614	60.6	39.4	54.8	67.5	42.5
P	4 509	55.9	44.1	57.1	68.4	47.1
UK	25 630	55.5	44.5	56.1	64.5	48.3

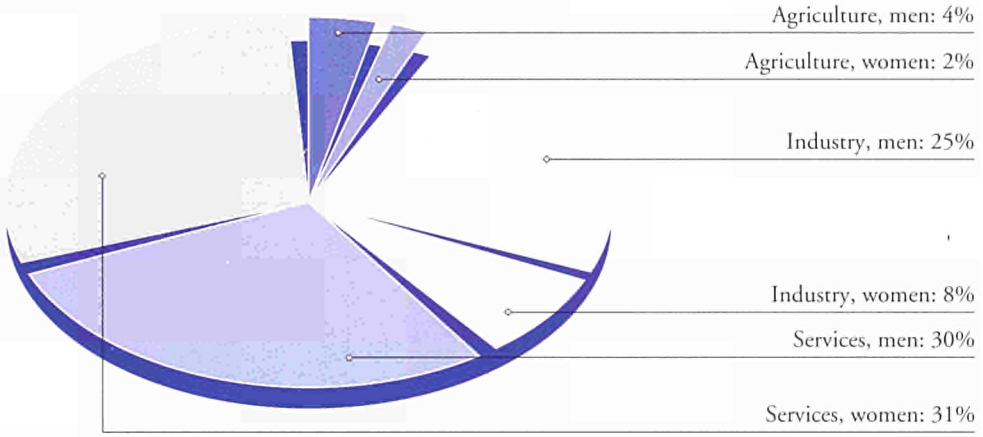
Employment by sector, 1992 (%)



Women currently fill almost 50% of the jobs in services.

In 1987, they filled only 47%. In 1992, women topped the 50% mark in Denmark, Germany, France and the United Kingdom. By contrast, less than a quarter of the jobs in industry are being done by women, and just over a third in agriculture.

Employment by sector and by sex, 1992, EUR 12



Over 82% of people with a job are employees.

Only 15.1% are self-employed or owners of firms employing other people, and 2.4% are helping a member of their family to run a small business such as a shop or farm.

Almost three quarters of family workers are women, whereas three quarters of the self-employed and employers are men.

Employment by status, 1992, EUR 12

	in thousands	%
Employees	114 433	82.5
Self-employed and employers	20 990	15.1
Family workers	3 313	2.4
Total	138 736	100.0

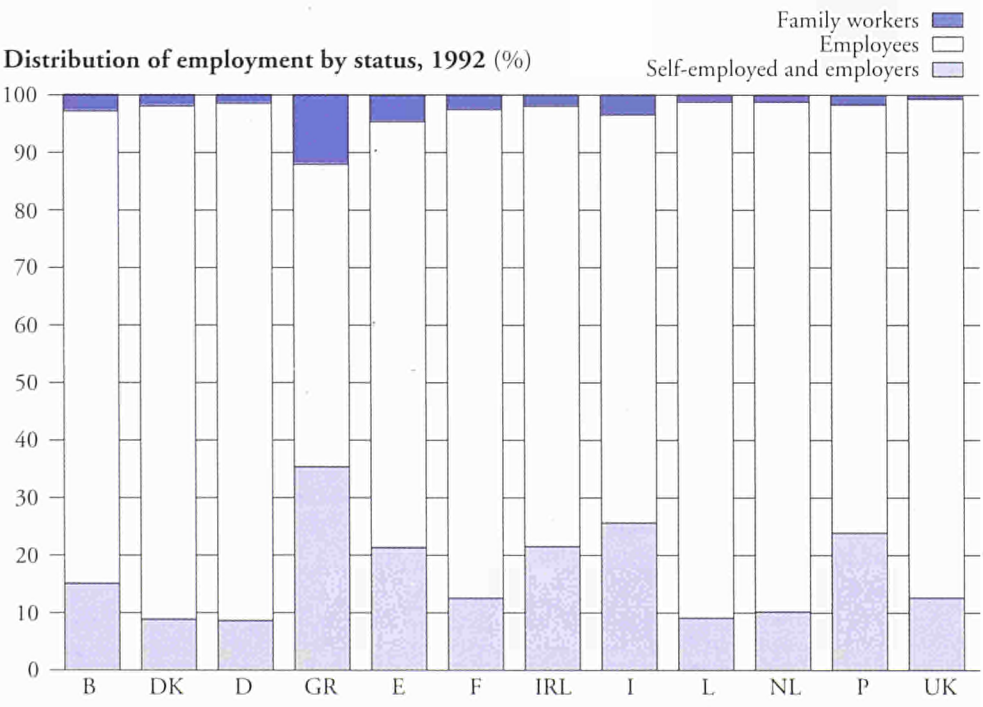
Employment by status and sex, 1992, EUR 12 *(%)*

	Men	Women
Employees	58	42
Self-employed and employers	74	26
Family workers	27	73

The self-employed and family workers frequently work in agriculture.

These types of employment are most common in countries where the percentage employed in agriculture is above average, namely Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal and Spain.

Distribution of employment by status, 1992 (%)



Just over 20 million people work part time.

Almost three quarters of people working part time are employed in the services sector, where this type of work is easiest to obtain. Those countries mentioned above as having a large agricultural sector all show figures well below the Union average of 14.3% for part-time working. The countries near the EU average are France, Germany and Belgium, whilst the proportion of part-time workers is higher in Denmark and the United Kingdom (23%) and a full 34% in the Netherlands.

Part-time work is still very much the exception for men.

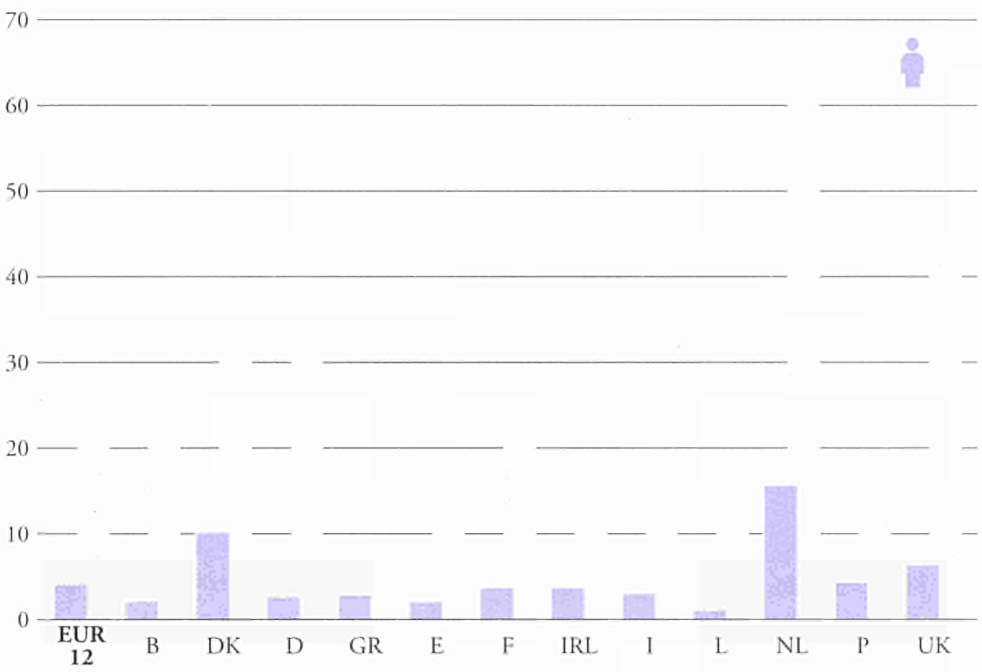
It accounts for less than 5% of total male employment, compared with almost 30% of female. With family and domestic obligations, women continue to be less readily available for paid work: 35% (1992 figure) of married women in employment are working part time.

Almost 60% of people working part time do not want a full-time job.

Over half of these 60% are women. However, there are almost 2.8 million part-time workers (three quarters of them women) who would prefer a full-time job but cannot find one and so form part of the 'under-employed'.

A few people work part time because they are still in education or are ill or disabled, or for other reasons.

Part-time workers as a percentage of total numbers employed, 1992



Reasons for working part time, 1992, EUR 12

(%)

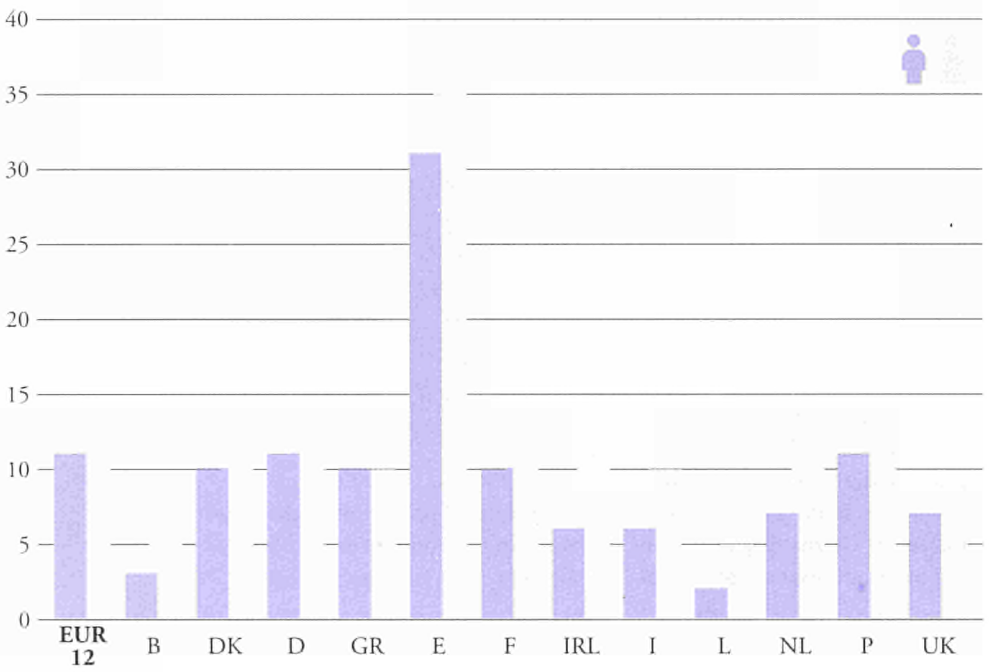
	Men	Women	Total
Did not want a full-time job	32	65	59
Could not find a full-time job	19	13	14
Still at school or undergoing training	23	7	10
Ill or disabled	5	1	2
Other reasons or no reason stated	20	14	15
Total	100	100	100

Approximately 14 million people are working on fixed-term contracts.

The majority of them are women. In over half of the cases where the reason is known, they cannot find a permanent job, although in countries such as Denmark and Germany temporary contracts are often associated with some form of vocational training provided by the employer.

In the Union as a whole, 11.9% of employees are on temporary contracts, but this figure is considerably inflated by Spain, an exceptional case in that one third of all employees have temporary contracts. No other country lies significantly above the average. Almost 40% of women working in Spain are on temporary contracts, 32.3% of them unable to find a permanent job.

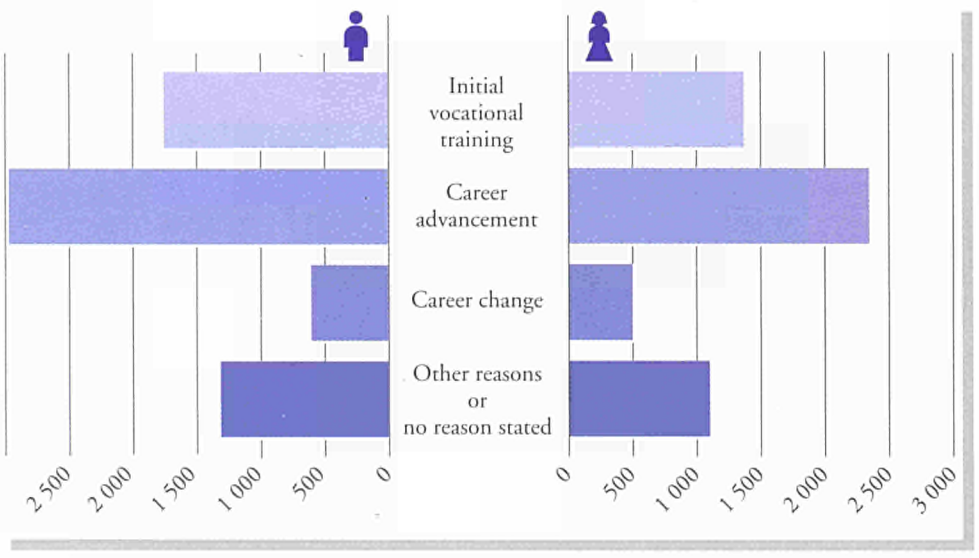
People on temporary contracts as a percentage of total numbers in employment



Some 12 million people, i.e. one employed person in 12, are undergoing some form of education or training.

In some cases, this is organized by their employer and in others on their own initiative. More women are involved than men (9.5% of all women in employment as opposed to 8% of men in 1992). In many cases (26%), the training or education is considered to be part of the worker's initial vocational training, in 44% of cases workers are hoping to improve their career prospects, while 9% intend changing to a different type of job.

Employed persons receiving education or training, 1992, EUR 12
(in thousands)



Roughly one employed person in 40 has more than one job.

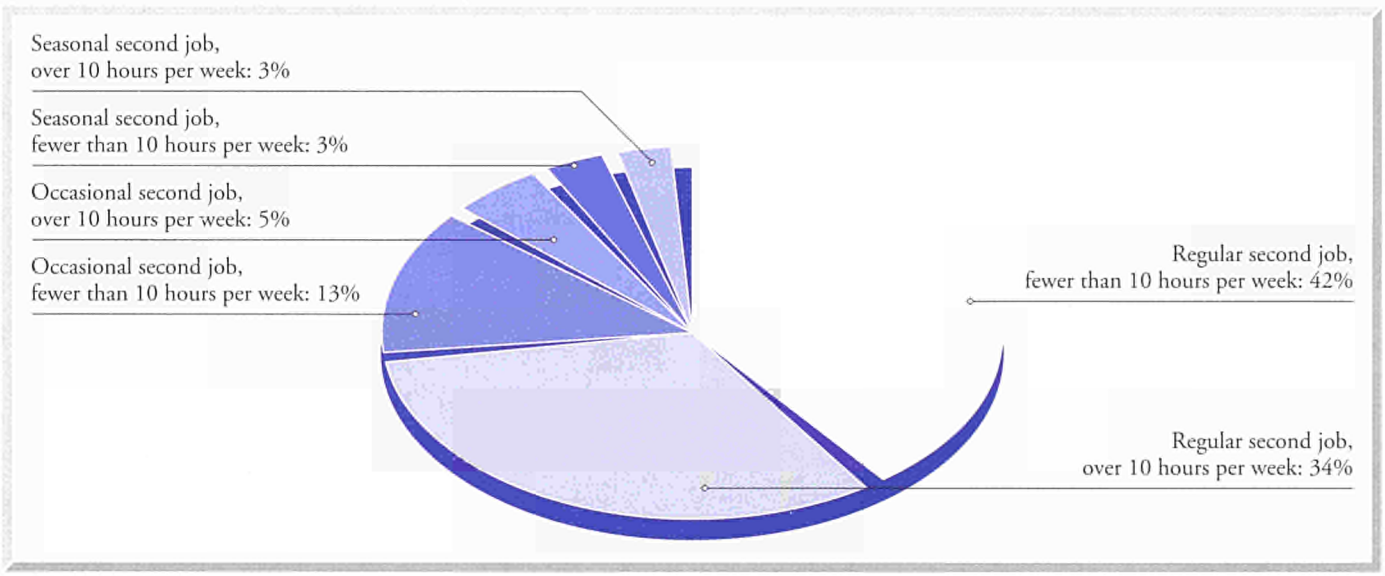
About three quarters of these 3.7 million look upon themselves as having two regular jobs, while the remainder regard their second job as 'occasional' (20%) or 'seasonal' (7%). Second jobs are more likely to be self-employed (40%, as opposed to 15% of first jobs) and in the agricultural sector (16% as against 6% of first jobs). This is particularly noticeable in the traditionally agricultural Mediterranean countries (57% of second jobs are in agriculture in Greece, 38% in Portugal, 32% in Spain and 25% in Italy) but even in an economy as highly industrialized as Germany's, nearly one third of second jobs are in agriculture. However, in Belgium, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, over 80% of second jobs are in the services sector.

Around half of those with a job are to be found working, at least sometimes, on a Saturday.

A quarter of them regularly work on a Saturday. Sunday working is more uncommon; three quarters of people in employment never work on a Sunday and only one in 10 do so regularly.

One third of people in employment work in the evenings at least occasionally, 14% of them regularly. Night work, i.e. when most people are asleep, is naturally less common, but 5% of people with a job frequently work at night and 9% occasionally. Shift working is the normal pattern for one employed person in 10.

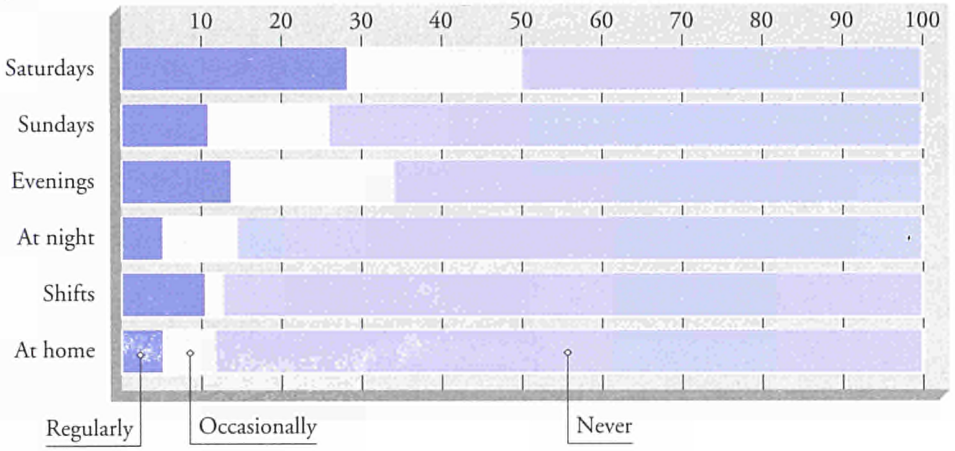
Breakdown of second jobs, 1992, EUR 12



Working at home is, in some cases, a traditional form of employment.

'Cottage industries' include many types of arts and crafts, but are also a phenomenon which may be expected to grow in importance. The development of advanced telecommunications may in future permit today's office workers to carry out many of their functions on a home computer linked to outside networks. In 1992, around 14% of people with a job worked at home, at least occasionally.

Persons working outside normal working hours, 1992, EUR 12
(%)



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WORKING POPULATION

UNEMPLOYMENT

At the end of May 1994, 10.9%, or 16.5 million of the economically active population of the European Union were unemployed.

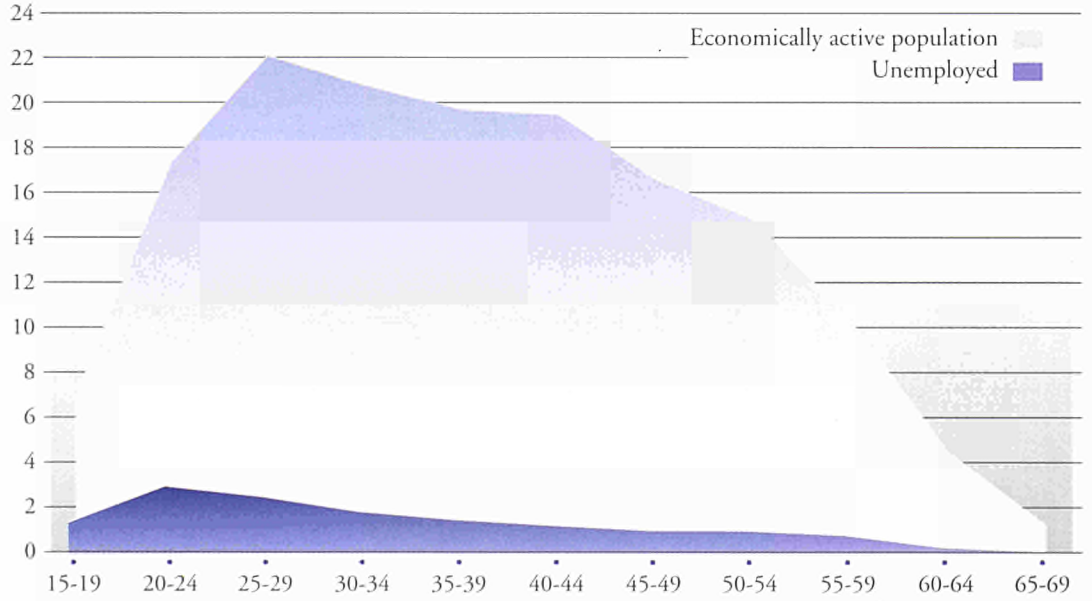
Since the start of the 1980s, there have been three phases to unemployment: from 1983 to 1986 it went up, then it fell back and finally, since 1990, it has been rising again.

In 1992, between a period of labour market expansion and a recession, the unemployment rate was 9.2%.

A glance at the difference between male and female unemployment rates shows women to be at a definite disadvantage, as are young people compared with their elders. Trends in these four rates are practically identical, with the gaps between them narrowing slightly between 1990 and 1994.

Over 20% of the Union's unemployed, i.e. over 3.2 million people, have been out of work for over two years. The long-term unemployed are more likely to be found in the older age groups.

The economically active population and the unemployed by age, EUR 12, 1992 (million)



After peaking in 1985 and 1986, the unemployment rate fell back, only to rise again from 1990 onwards.

At the end of May 1994, the unemployment rate in the European Union was 10.9% of the economically active population, i.e. 16.5 million persons (11% or 17.6 million if the new *Länder* and East Berlin are included).

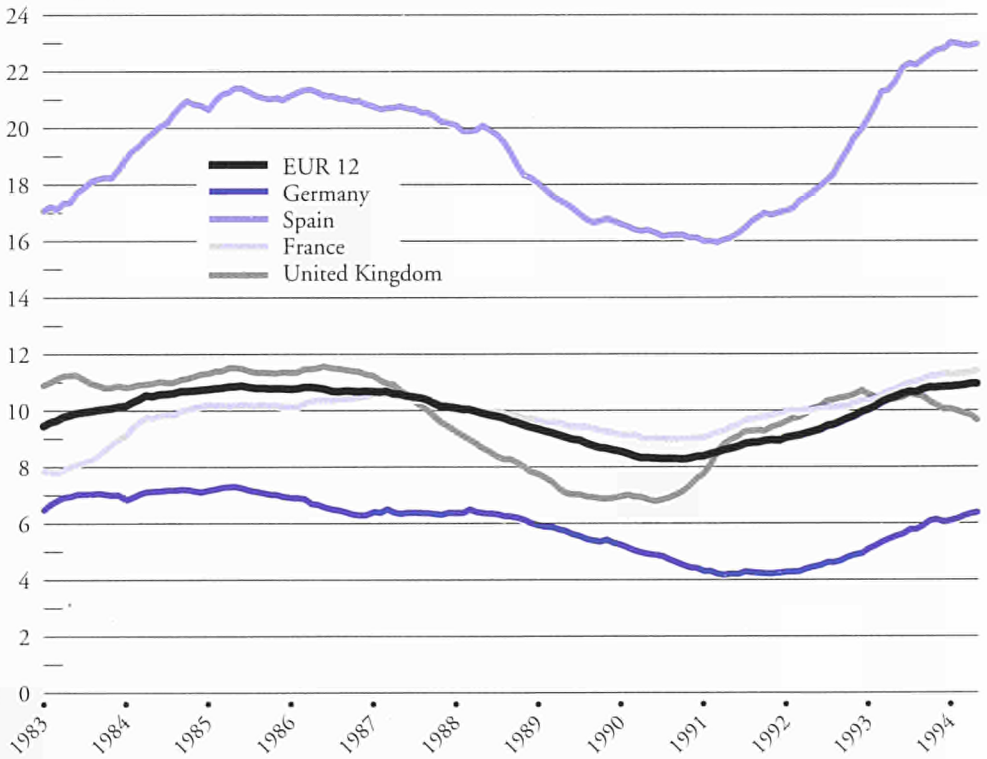
Since 1983, there have been quite substantial fluctuations. Between January 1985 and June 1986, the rate exceeded 10.8%, peaking at 10.9% in June 1985. During the years 1987 to 1989, there was a steady fall, with a trough at 8.3% in the second half of 1990. Between 1991 and 1993, despite the apparent slight slowdown from the fourth quarter of 1993, there was a fairly steady increase which then went up to a maximum of 10.9% in February 1994.

This analysis of unemployment figures is based largely on Community data for the period prior to German unification.

Any person aged 14 or over who is without work, who is seeking work and is available for work within 15 days is considered to be ***unemployed***. 'Seeking work' means that the person has, within the past four weeks, taken steps to find a job, such as going to a job centre, placing or answering newspaper advertisements or contacting employers, trade unions, etc.

The ***unemployment rate*** shows numbers of people unemployed as a percentage of the economically active population, i.e. of people with a job (employment) or looking for one (unemployment).

Unemployment rates in selected countries (% per month)



NB: The data for Germany refer to the Federal Republic prior to unification.

The periods of labour market expansion (around 1990) and crisis (at the end of 1992) did not start and end at the same time in every country.

In 1993, Spain, the United Kingdom, Germany (including the new *Länder*) and France each had between 16 and 21% of the total number of unemployed persons in the Community, i.e. over 60% in all. The rate and changes in that rate in those four countries are thus crucial for Community figures. Since 1986, Ireland's rate has followed the United Kingdom's, and the those for Germany, Luxembourg and the Netherlands, like those of Belgium and France, have moved in parallel. The Italian rate has remained close to the Community curve.

The United Kingdom witnessed its lowest unemployment rate during the summer of 1990, France in the autumn of that year, Spain in the spring of 1991 and, finally, Germany during the last three quarters of 1991.

The crisis periods are staggered. Unemployment peaked in the United Kingdom at the end of 1992 and has since been declining. In Spain, the rate seems to have stabilized since the beginning of this year (1994) but in France and Germany, the upward trend would appear to be continuing.

Every month, employment ministries publish numbers of persons registered at job centres. This statistic is the most up-to-date record of the 'unemployed' in the Member States, but the figure arrived at depends very much on the country's social protection system, and meaningful comparisons between countries are virtually impossible.

Unemployment figures can be obtained only from a survey of the individuals potentially affected. The Community labour force survey (LFS) carried out every spring by the national statistical institutes assesses both numbers of persons unemployed and the structure of unemployment by age and duration.

Data on the structure of unemployment refer to the situation in the European Union in the spring of 1992 — following German unification.

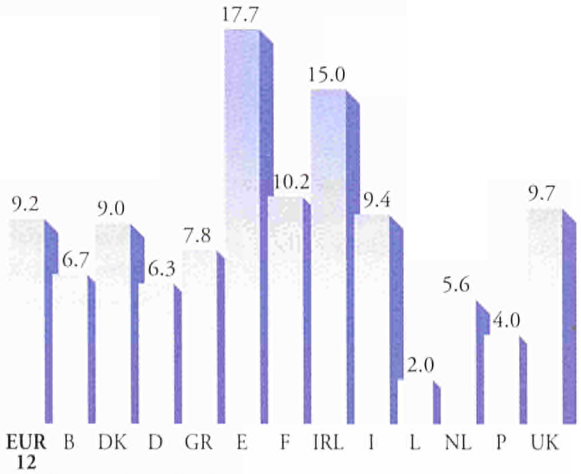
The number of persons unemployed on the date of the LFS is interpolated or extrapolated using changes in numbers of persons registered at job centres every month.

These data are presented in the form of seasonally adjusted unemployment rates. In fact, unemployment is a variable affected to a large extent by time of the year, in particular, there is a noticeable increase in the rate for young people at the end of each school year. Seasonal adjustment eliminates this high point in order to convey trends alone.

In the spring of 1992, the European Union unemployment rate was 9.2%.

At that date the level reflected the fact that Europe was midway between economic expansion (it had been down to 8.3% in 1990) and crisis (up to 11% in 1994). It was highest in Spain, Ireland and the new German *Länder* (over 14%). In contrast, it was very low in Luxembourg, Portugal and the western part of Germany (below 4%). It was slightly above the Community average in Italy, the United Kingdom and France, and slightly below the average in Denmark, Greece, Belgium, Germany and the Netherlands.

Total unemployment rate, 1992 (%)



NB: Germany after unification.

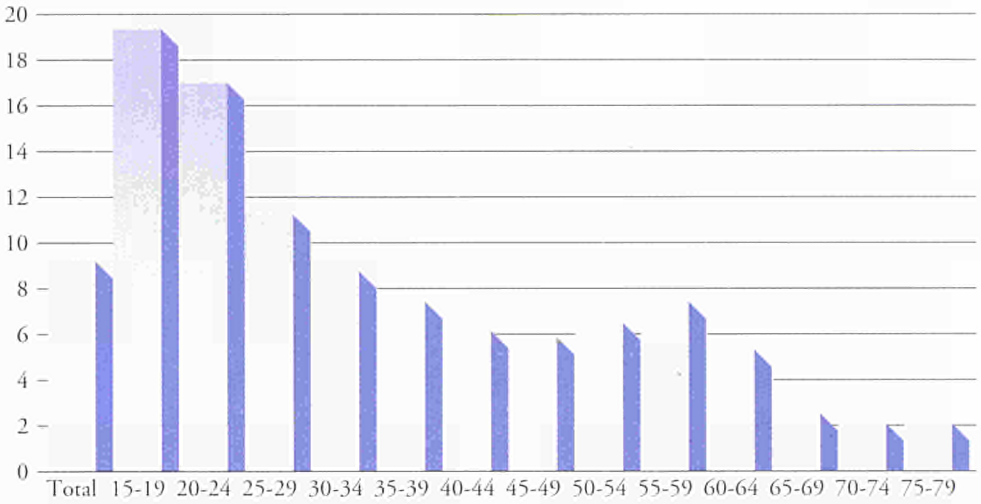
The unemployment rate for the economically active under-25s is over 17%, falling steadily thereafter to 6% for persons aged 40 to 49.

Although it cannot be denied that unemployment hits the young first (19.36% for the economically active aged under 20), the disparity in rates is exacerbated by the calculation method, which sets unemployment against the economically active population. For persons aged 25 to 55, work is the 'normal' situation and many people in that age range do in fact have a job. On the other hand, a large number of young people are still in secondary or higher education, which classifies them statistically as economically inactive.

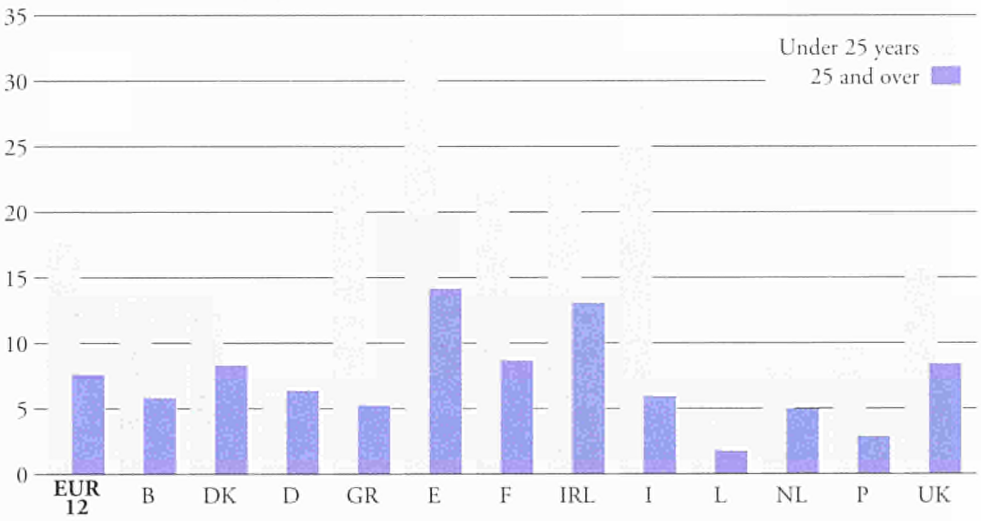
Another method of calculating unemployment amongst young people would be to measure the number of young unemployed people against the population aged between 15 and 24 rather than against the number of economically active people in this age group. This would give youth unemployment figures of 15% in Spain for 1992, 12% for Italy, 11% for Ireland and the United Kingdom, 10% for Greece and 9% for France.

This also explains why people in the 50 to 59 age group have a higher unemployment rate than those in the 40 to 49 age group. After the age of 50, the economically active population tends to fall, owing to the increasingly common practice of taking early retirement and to the tendency of women to leave the labour market relatively early.

Total unemployment rate by age, 1992, EUR 12 (%)



Unemployment rate by age, 1992 (%)



In Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain, the under-25s are 2.5 times as likely to be unemployed as their elders.

In France, Spain, Belgium and Luxembourg, the rate for the under-25s is twice as high as for the over-25s. In the United Kingdom, Ireland, the Netherlands and Denmark, it is 1.5 times as high and only in Germany is it more or less the same owing to the importance of apprenticeships in these countries' educational systems. In Germany, apprentices are paid for their work, are counted as being employed and thus inflate the unemployment rate denominator.

The unemployment rate for women is much higher (11.1%) than for men (7.9%).

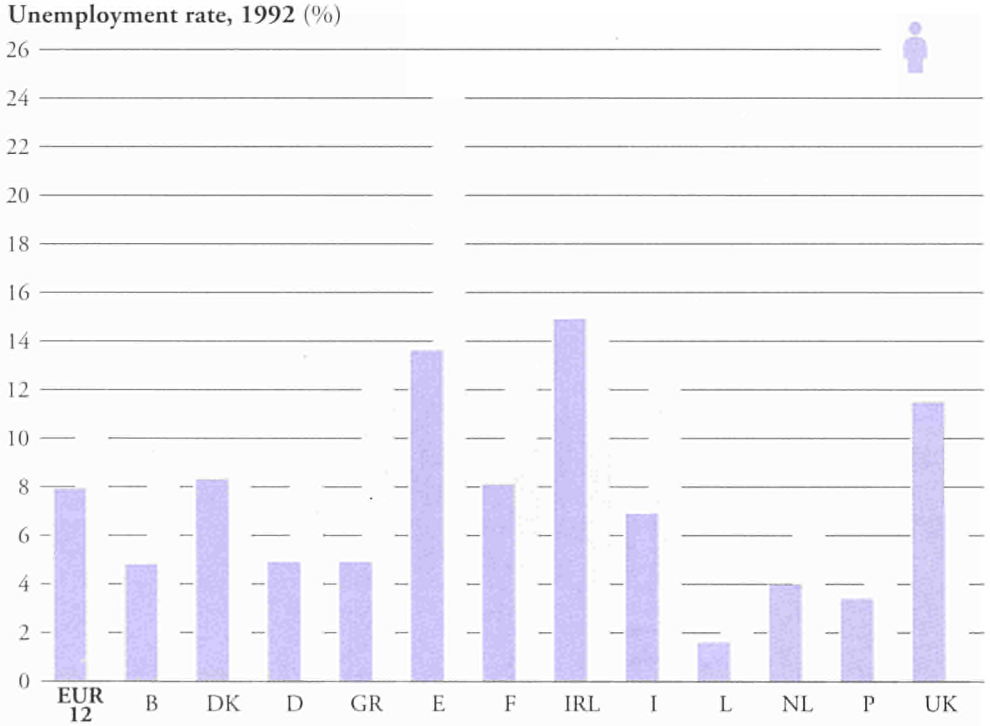
In 1992, the female unemployment rate was 20% higher than the average unemployment rate (9.2%), even though women were not equally hard hit by unemployment in all countries.

The disparity between the unemployment rates for women and men is highest in Spain, Greece and Italy, followed by France, Belgium, the Netherlands and Germany.

The female unemployment rate was lower than the male unemployment rate only in the United Kingdom.

In Ireland, Denmark, Luxembourg and Portugal, the female unemployment rate was not significantly different from the male unemployment rate.

Unemployment rate, 1992 (%)



The unemployment rates for women and young people are very much higher than for the population as a whole, but the two sets of figures move virtually in parallel.

Over the past five years, the difference between the male and female rates has become proportionately less. In May 1990, the female to male ratio (10.9 to 6.6%) was 1.65, whereas by May 1994 it was only 1.33 (12.8% for women and 9.7% for men).

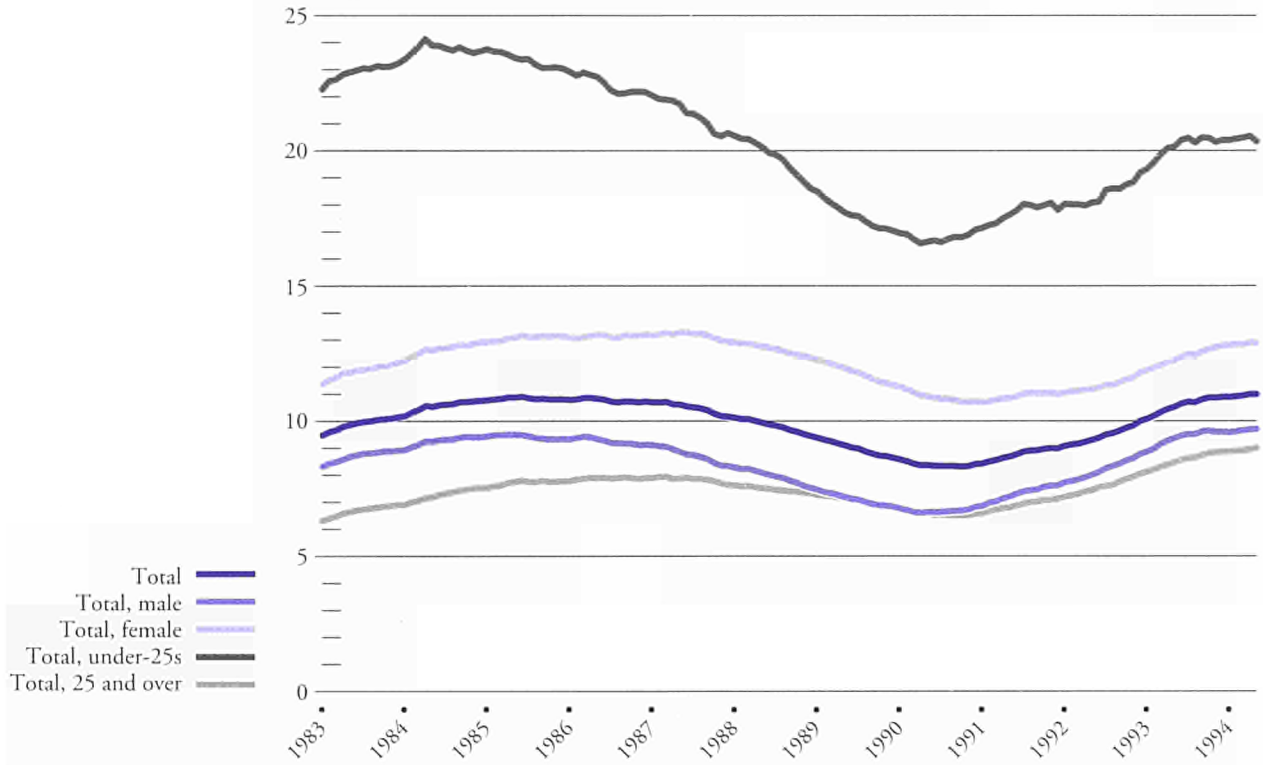
The two sets of figures moved closer together because, over the past few years, the 'safest' jobs, generally those done by men, have been most likely to go. The crisis has had less effect on women (more flexible, part-time working) than on men.

As more women than men say that they do not seek new employment as soon as they lose their job, they often do not appear as economically inactive.

In May 1990, the ratio of youth unemployment (16.6%) to that of the 25s and over (6.6%) was 2.54 whereas by May 1994 it was down to only 2.26 (20.3% for the younger and 9% for the older age group).

The rate for young people began to move closer to that for the older groups in the mid-1980s, as a result of government policies to promote jobs for younger people, the fall in the number of young people of working age (15 to 24) and the fall in the employment rate for this age group.

Unemployment rate, EUR 12 (%)

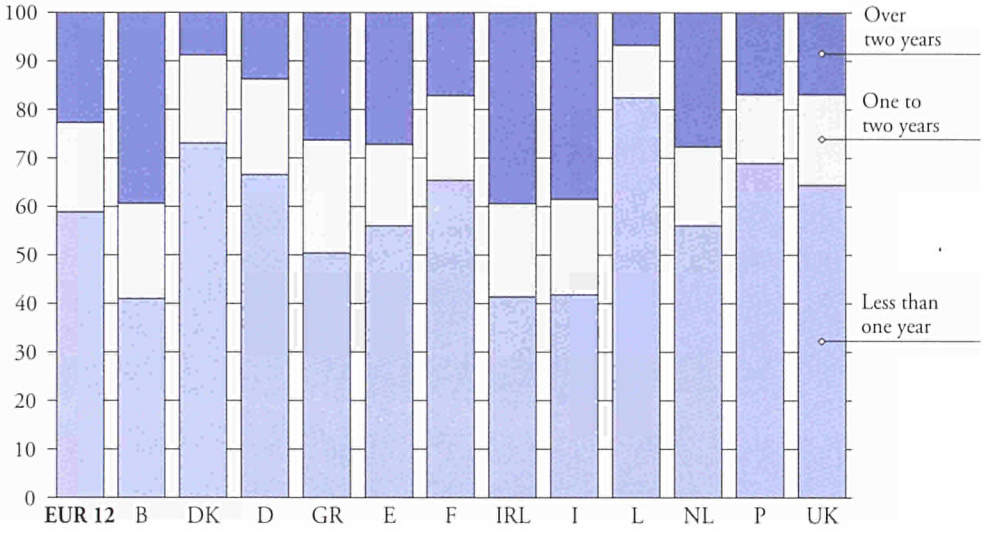


NB: The EUR 12 data refer to Community territory prior to German unification.

Long-term unemployment applies to those who have been looking for a job for a year or more or lost their job a year or more ago.

Very long-term unemployment applies to those who have been looking for a job for two years or more or lost their job two years ago or more.

Unemployment by duration, 1992 (%)



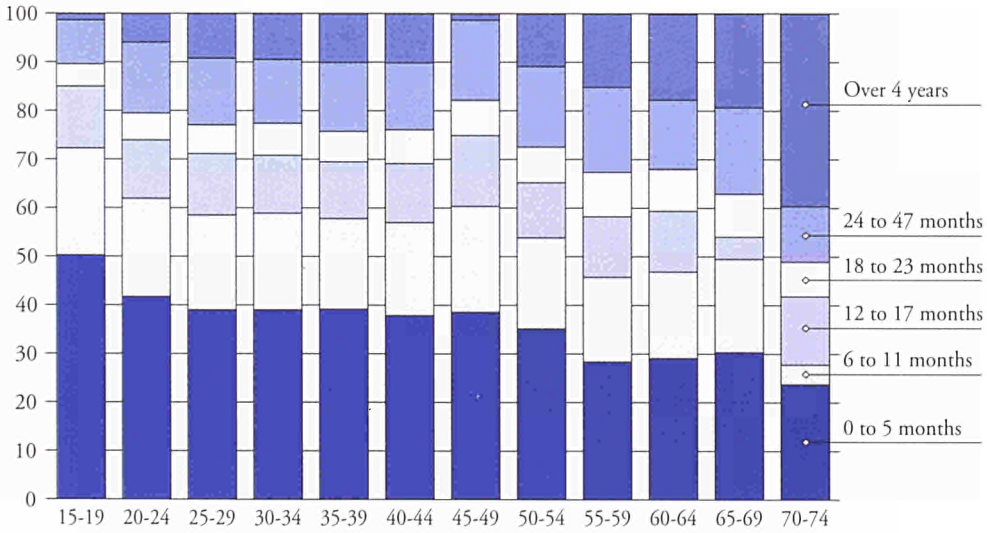
Over 40% of the European Union's unemployed have been out of work for over a year, about 20% of them for over two years.

In Belgium, Ireland and Italy, 40% of the unemployed (and in Greece, the Netherlands and Spain 25%) have been out of work for over two years.

In Luxembourg, by contrast, fewer than 10% of the unemployed have been out of work for over two years. This is the result of the thriving labour market. In 1992, unemployment was running at 2% as against the Community average of 9.2%.

In Denmark, fewer than 10% of the total are 'very long-term unemployed'. There, job centres systematically arrange interviews, training, etc. for this category of persons.

Unemployment by duration and age, EUR 12, 1992 (%)



The length of unemployment increases with age: over 10% of the 55 to 64-year-olds have been out of a job for four years or more.

Over 65% of the young unemployed (under 25) have been out of work for less than a year. For the 25- to 49-year age group, the figure falls to 57%, for the 50- to 65-year-olds it is below 50%. Similarly, almost 45% of young people out of work have been without a job for less than six months. This figure falls to 38% in the 50- to 64-year age group.

Estimate of the number of unemployed, annual averages

(in thousands)

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR (1)	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Total men and women													
1986	15 025	465	154	1 856	287	2 924	2 463	240	2 446	4.0	640	387	3 158
1987	14 772	445	157	1 807	286	2 945	2 491	238	2 523	3.9	649	322	2 903
1988	13 976	398	183	1 807	304	2 841	2 363	229	2 562	3.1	608	269	2 410
1989	12 902	336	219	1 637	297	2 532	2 257	206	2 560	2.9	568	243	2 047
1990	12 173	301	233	1 451	282	2 435	2 166	192	2 356	2.7	515	227	2 009
1991	12 814	303	259	1 278	303	2 471	2 308	219	2 408	2.7	493	204	2 568
1992	13 936	332	277	1 377	:	2 806	2 468	246	2 462	3.2	499	198	2 965
1993	15 795	386	304	1 732	:	3 519	2 679	255	2 687	4.3	622	262	3 042
Men													
1986	7 871	182	59	933	127	1 836	1 143	156	1 053	1.8	320	173	1 886
1987	7 455	179	67	911	128	1 622	1 113	155	1 103	1.8	304	139	1 735
1988	6 808	164	84	896	122	1 459	1 027	149	1 095	1.5	288	108	1 415
1989	6 102	132	106	791	115	1 245	950	135	1 076	1.4	261	96	1 195
1990	5 764	116	112	716	108	1 165	914	123	983	1.3	234	90	1 201
1991	6 329	120	121	667	121	1 202	999	139	1 027	1.3	224	79	1 631
1992	7 175	134	131	736	:	1 410	1 104	153	1 065	1.6	234	94	1 992
1993	8 320	159	148	959	:	1 878	1 260	158	1 174	2.1	295	124	2 041
Women													
1986	7 154	283	96	924	160	1 088	1 320	84	1 393	2.2	320	214	1 272
1987	7 317	265	90	896	158	1 323	1 378	83	1 420	2.1	345	183	1 168
1988	7 168	234	100	911	182	1 382	1 335	79	1 467	1.6	320	161	995
1989	6 800	204	113	846	182	1 287	1 306	71	1 484	1.5	307	147	852
1990	6 409	186	122	735	174	1 269	1 252	69	1 373	1.4	281	137	808
1991	6 484	183	138	611	181	1 269	1 309	80	1 381	1.3	269	125	937
1992	6 760	199	147	641	:	1 396	1 364	92	1 397	1.6	265	104	973
1993	7 475	227	156	773	:	1 641	1 419	97	1 513	2.2	327	138	1 001

(1) Spring.

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WORKING POPULATION

THE EUROPEAN SOCIAL FUND

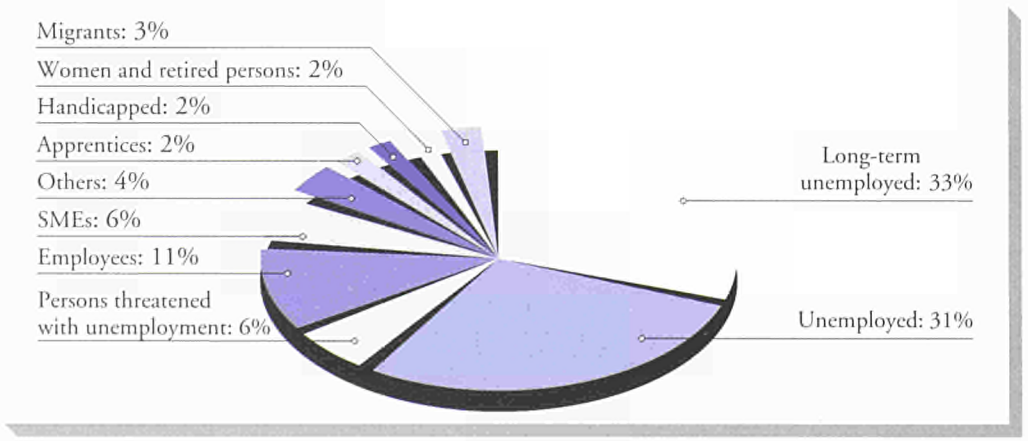
The European Social Fund (ESF) was created in 1957 by the Treaty of Rome. It is the oldest of the Community Structural Funds. Together with the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF), established in 1975, the European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund (EAGGF), the 'Guidance' section of which was created in 1964, and the Financial Instrument for Fisheries Guidance (FIFG) established in 1993, the ESF constitutes one of the Community instruments for economic development, and one that is called on to play an important role alongside national and regional policies. By creating these Structural Funds, the European Union is endeavouring to reduce the gap between regions and help less favoured regions to catch up.

The Structural Funds pursue six types of objective through the Community Support Frameworks (CSFs). The year 1991 saw the introduction of Community initiatives (as opposed to national initiatives scheduled as part of the CSFs) broken down by funds. Finally, in 1992, 'transitional measures and innovative actions' were introduced, again broken down by funds.

The ESF is involved in five types of objectives, but it alone takes action under Objectives 3 and 4 (combating long-term unemployment and facilitating the occupational integration of young people, and facilitating the adaptation of workers to industrial change). Together with the other Structural Funds, it cofinances regional development in preselected areas such as the regions which are lagging behind (listed in Objective 1), declining industrial areas (listed in Objective 2) and rural areas (listed in Objective 5b).

For the 1989-93 period, the ESF budget amounted to ECU 20.792 billion. Between 1990 and 1993 there were just over 13 million beneficiaries.

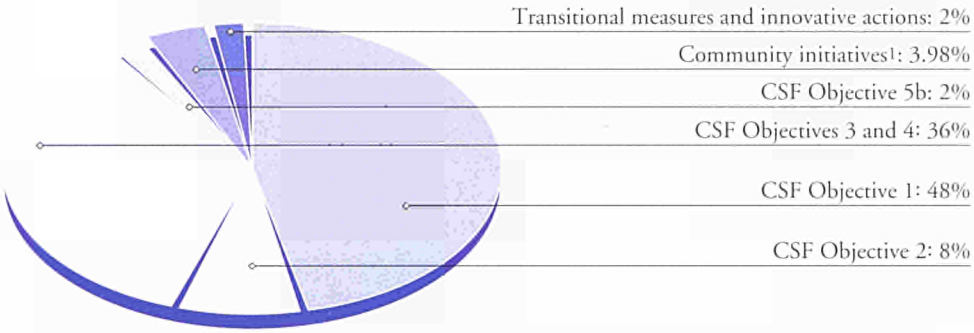
ESF beneficiaries, 1990-93



In order to obtain Community assistance under Objectives 3 and 4, the Member States submit their plans to the Commission, indicating, amongst other things, the use of the ESF aid.

The Commission then examines the proposed plans and establishes, for each Member State, Community Support Frameworks (CSFs) to achieve the objectives over periods ranging from three to six years.

1989-93 budgetary implementation by objective for ESF commitment appropriations (%)



NB: The appropriations for the new German *Länder* (ECU 900 million; structural operations under Regulation (EEC) No 3575/90) are not entered under the implementation of the Structural Funds for 1989-93, as they constitute separate aid granted after the 1988 reform.

[1] Including Community programmes.

Objectives 3 and 4 focus on combating long-term unemployment and facilitating the occupational integration of young people.

They make it easier for workers to adapt to industrial change.

Under Objective 3, persons eligible for vocational training measures, recruitment premiums and subsidies for the creation of self-employed activities must be over 25 years of age and have been unemployed for more than 12 months (this period may be reduced in specific cases determined by the Commission).

For Objective 4, the recipients are young people under 25 years of age, who have been seeking employment since the end of compulsory schooling.

One of the aims of the ESF is to provide the long-term unemployed with high qualifications.

This is done by:

initiatives involving a variety of measures, so that training can be real means of occupational and social integration;

exploiting local potential for employ-ment development;

premiums for recruitment into newly created stable jobs and subsidies for the creation of self-employment activities;

the training and occupational integration of women wishing to return to the job market after a long break.

Helping young people find stable employment is another aim of the ESF.

This it supports mainly by:

measures to assist young people who leave school without the basic knowledge that will enable them to follow vocational training. Such training should provide these young people with high qualifications suited to their skills and to market needs. It should also include periods of job experience and theoretical training which will bring the people concerned closer to their first steady job;

basic training linked to job experience in a firm or in appropriate centres (preference being given to measures leading to a recognized qualification);

training requiring the use of new technology leading to the qualifications sought by employers.

'Employment and development of human resources' is an initiative based on the guidelines set out in the Commission's White Paper on growth, competitiveness and employment and on the NOW and Horizon initiatives launched by the Community in 1990. There are three parts to this initiative, the objectives being interdependent:

Employ-Now aims to secure equal opportunities for women;

Employ-Horizon aims to facilitate access to the labour market for those who are currently excluded from it, or run the risk of being so — the disabled, disadvantaged persons, risk groups, etc.;

Employ-Youthstart aims to help bring young people under the age of 20 into the labour market, particularly those without training or adequate qualifications.

For 1994-98, ECU 1 400 million has been earmarked for this initiative, which covers the whole of the European Union.

The aim of Objective 1 is to promote the development and structural adjustment of regions whose development is lagging behind.

Regions whose per capita GDP is less than or close to 75% of the Community average are classified under Objective 1. Community Support Frameworks (CSFs) for Objective 1 are established for a period of five years. The CSFs in the 1989-93 period covered regions with a population of 70.3 million, or 21% of the population of the European Union (excluding the former German Democratic Republic).

Following the August 1993 revision, which added other regions to Objective 1, the population concerned amounted to 91.6 million, or 26.6% of the total population of the European Union. This increase is due above all to the inclusion of the five new *Länder*.

Some 67.7% of the population of the regions concerned are in Spain, Germany and Italy, while 25% are in Greece, Portugal and Ireland.

Only Denmark and Luxembourg have no regions classified under Objective 1.

The entire territory of Greece, Ireland and Portugal is covered.

The regions concerned account for 59.8% of Spain's population, 36.6% of Italy's, 22% of Germany's, 12.8% of Belgium's, 5.8% of the United Kingdom's, 3% of France's and 1.4% of the population of the Netherlands.

Countries and regions classified under Objective 1

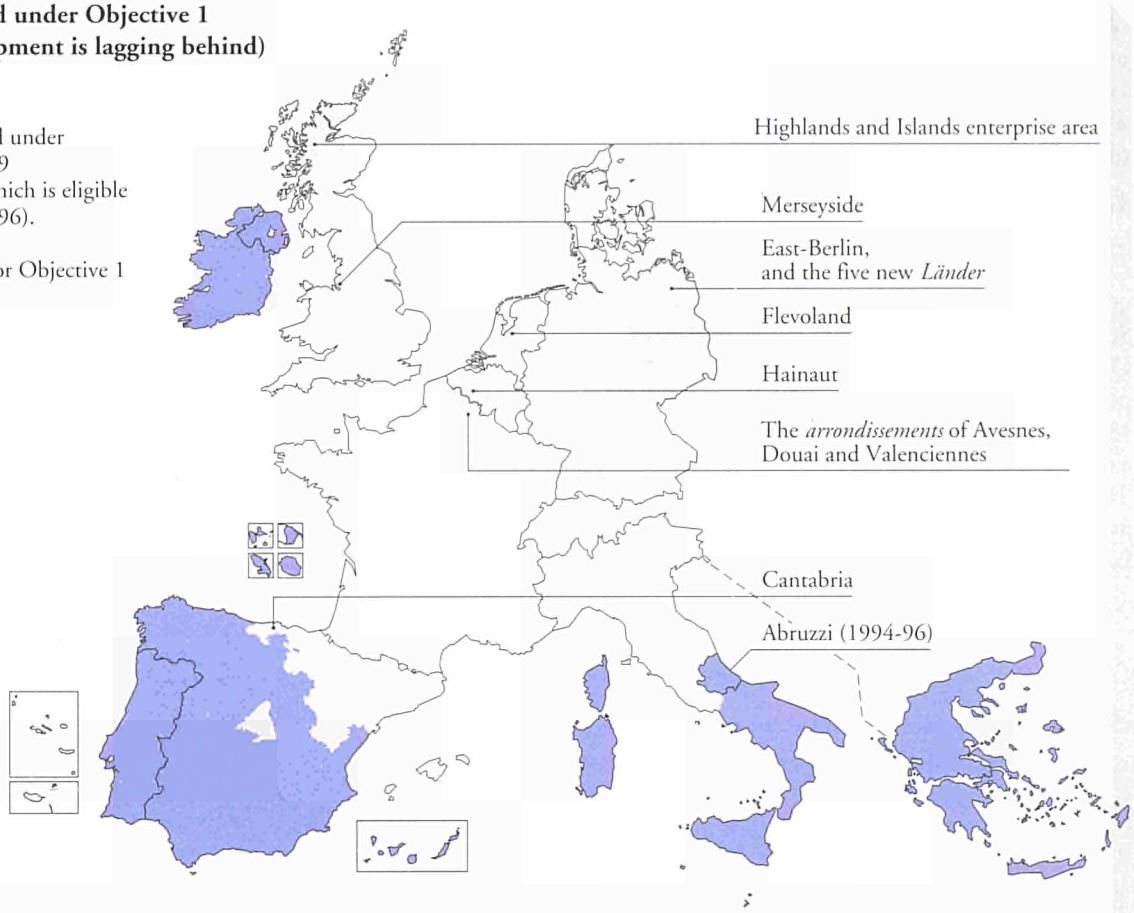
	Regions classified in Objective 1, prior to August 1993	Population, 1991 (in thousands)	Unemployment rate, April 1993 (%)	Regions added to Objective 1 as from August 1993	Population, 1991 (in thousands)	Unemployment rate, April 1993 (%)
B	–	–	–	Hainaut	1 280	14.6
DK	–	–	–	–	–	–
D	CSF established on 13 March 1991 for the former GDR			Brandenburg, Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania, East-Berlin, Saxony, Saxony-Anhalt, Thuringia	17 612	11.5-14.1
GR	The entire country	10 153	9.2 [1]	–	–	–
E	Andalucía, Asturias, Castilla-León, Castilla-La Mancha, Ceuta y Melilla, Comunidad Valenciana, Extremadura, Galicia, Canary Islands, Murcia	22 786	17.0-30.8	Cantabria	528	19.2
F	French overseas departments, Corsica	1 688	11.0 [2]	The *arrondissements* of Avesnes, Douai and Valenciennes	:	:
IRL	The entire country	3 524	18.4	–	–	–
I	Abruzzi, Basilicata, Calabria, Campania, Molise, Puglia, Sardegna, Sicily	21 184	12.4-23.1	Abruzzi until the end of 1996	–	–
L	–	–	–	–	–	–
NL	–	–	–	Flevoland	218	7.6
P	The entire country	9 362	4.9	–	–	–
UK	Northern Ireland	1 594	15.0	Highlands and Islands enterprise area, Merseyside	1 725	13.4-13.9
Total		**70 291**			**21 363**	

[1] April 1992.
[2] Corsica.

Regions eligible for aid under Objective 1 (regions whose development is lagging behind)

Regions eligible for aid under Objective 1 in 1994-99 (except for Abruzzi, which is eligible until 31 December 1996).

New regions eligible for Objective 1 aid in 1994-99.



The new ESF Regulation, which was adopted on 20 July 1993 and entered into force in August 1993, amends the Objectives as follows: the measures to combat long-term unemployment (previously under Objective 3) and the occupational integration of young people (previously under Objective 4) are grouped together in a single Objective, the new Objective 3.

The new Objective 4 is intended to enable the ESF to assume its new duties under the Treaty on European Union: 'to facilitate the adaptation of workers to industrial change and to changes in production systems'. The aim is to prevent unemployment by improving the vocational qualifications of workers, thus preparing them for change.

The data in this chapter refer to the pre-1993 Objectives.

The aim of Objective 2 is to convert regions seriously affected by industrial decline.

Areas with an unemployment rate and a percentage share of industrial employment higher than the Community average and a fall in industrial employment are classified under this Objective. However, Objective 2 now includes the impact of the restructuring of the fisheries sector among the secondary criteria for eligibility.

The CSFs for Objective 2 are established for a period of three years. In the 1989-91 period they covered 60 regions, with a population of 53.2 million. Priority is given to employment and the quality of the environment.

The promotion of new activities, the regeneration of industrial sites, land and buildings, the conversion of a region and improvement of its image, training, research and development and the strengthening of links between universities and industry are given priority.

Objective 5a is devoted to speeding up the adjustment of agricultural structures. Only the EAGGF takes action under this Objective, so the ESF is not concerned.

Current population of the areas covered by Objective 5b in the 1994-99 period

Member State	In thousands	Share of the population of the Member State (%)	Share of the population of areas covered by Objective 5b in the whole Community (%)
EUR 12	**28 522**	**8.2**	**100**
B	448	4.5	1.6
DK	360	7.0	1.3
D	7 725	9.6	27.1
E	1 731	4.4	6.1
F	9 759	17.3	34.2
I	4 828	8.4	17.0
L	30	7.8	0.1
NL	800	5.4	2.8
UK	2 841	4.9	9.9

NB: Greece, Ireland and Portugal are not included in Objectives 2 and 5b, as their entire territory is covered by Objective 1.

Objective 5 b aims at promoting the development of rural areas.

Rural areas with a low level of socioeconomic development and agricultural income and a high share of agricultural employment in total employment are classified under this Objective. Since the new Regulation of 20 July 1993, Objective 5b also covers the impact of the restructuring of the fisheries sector among its secondary criteria for eligibility.

Emphasis is given to diversifying activities and creating non-agricultural jobs, particularly in the fields of tourism and small and medium-sized enterprises.

The CSFs for Objective 5b are established for a period of five years. They cover areas that account for 26.6% of the territory and 8.2% of the current population of the Community (1994-99).

In the previous period (1989-93) the corresponding figures were just 17 and 5% respectively.

The ESF intervenes alone throughout the European Union under Objectives 3 and 4.

Over ECU 8 billion were allocated to CSFs to combat long-term unemployment and promote occupational integration between 1989 and 1993.

The Member States that allocate the highest funds to Objectives 3 and 4 are the United Kingdom and France.

Portugal, Ireland and Spain allocate the largest proportion of the funds granted to them for the development and adjustment of underdeveloped regions by contributing to Objective 1 measures.

Under the other objectives, intervention of the ESF is coordinated with the other Community financial instruments.

It operates in association with:

the ERDF, the EAGGF Guidance Section, the European Investment Bank (EIB) and the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) for Objective 1;

the ERDF, the EIB and the ECSC for Objective 2;

the ERDF, the EAGGF Guidance Section and the EIB for Objective 5b.

ESF–CSF: Financial implementation by Objective, 1989-93

(Appropriations in million ECU, at current prices)

	Objective 1	Objective 2	Objectives 3 and 4	Objective 5b	Total
B	0	74	308	15	397
DK	0	14	185	10	209
D [1]	0	181	1 081	78	1 340
GR	1 960	0	0	0	1 960
E	2 691	339	1 087	44	4 161
F	359	301	1 672	160	2 492
IRL	1 555	0	0	0	1 555
I	2 022	176	1 182	46	3 426
L	0	0	12	0	12
NL	0	71	443	12	526
P	2 272	0	0	0	2 272
UK	316	698	2 111	52	3 177
Total	**11 175**	**1 854**	**8 081**	**417**	**21 527**
D [2]	944				944

[1] Former Federal Republic of Germany.
[2] New *Länder*.

In the regions not covered by Objective 1, Objectives 3 and 4 focus on 12 priority areas.

In 1989, priority amongst the CSFs for Objectives 3 and 4 in regions not covered by Objective 1 went to financing measures to upgrade skills and provide basic training.

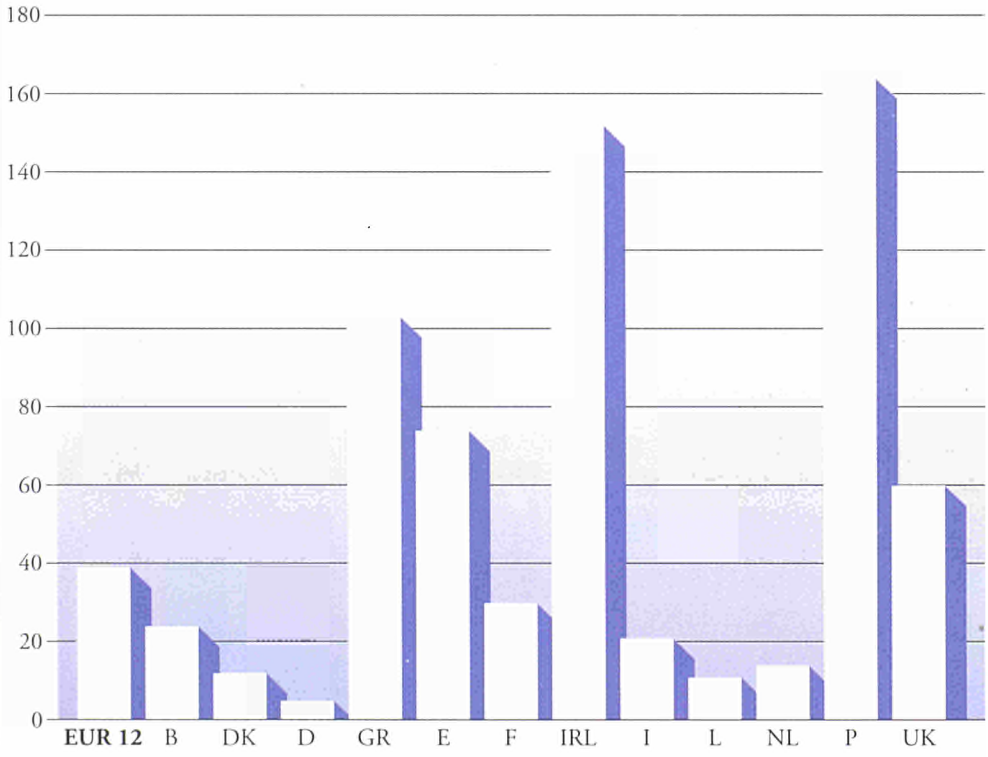
ESF intervention provided for under Objectives 3 and 4 CSFs in regions not covered by Objective 1

Breakdown by priority	Amount in million ECU (1989 prices)	%
Skills upgrading/basic training	1 852	44.86
Disabled	411	9.96
Second-level training	333	8.05
Recruitment premiums	321	7.78
Women	239	5.80
Technological training	224	5.42
Specialized training	165	4.00
Migrants	154	3.73
Other disadvantaged persons	123	2.98
Training of long-term unemployed	86	2.09
Multi-sectoral training	58	1.40
Transnational and innovatory measures	26	0.63
Other	135	3.28
Total	**4 127**	**100**

The largest number of ESF beneficiaries compared with the country's population is in Portugal.

In Portugal there are 164 beneficiaries per 1 000 inhabitants, followed by Ireland (152 per 1 000), Greece (103 per 1 000) and Spain (74 per 1 000).

Beneficiaries per 1 000 inhabitants, 1990-93



Breakdown of ESF beneficiaries 1990-93

	Long-term unemployed	Unemployed	Threatened with unemployment	Employed	SMEs	Other	Apprentices	Disabled	Women and pensioners	Migrants	Total
EUR 12	**4 564 065**	**4 078 100**	**751 493**	**1 470 207**	**762 395**	**552 515**	**218 398**	**319 879**	**270 091**	**382 441**	**13 369 584**
B	106 906	89 001	14 170	11 174	3 719	0	145	6 763	3 255	3 154	**238 287**
DK	15 956	24 108	2 181	868	3 143	0	0	5 464	7 369	4 698	**63 787**
D	93 801	131 003	40 934	3 670	23 761	9 766	30	17 016	22 194	28 164	**370 339**
GR	293 014	317 189	200 323	97 832	8 214	5 090	87 440	7 031	3 725	34 639	**1 054 497**
E	761 218	1 119 732	148 707	155 139	383 077	200 427	22 100	24 180	88 886	5 088	**2 908 554**
F	774 315	390 597	58 034	139 368	52 019	274 017	7 658	13 992	849	5 907	**1 716 756**
IRL	39 433	231 556	71 820	112 192	42 795	100	22 488	17 024	238	0	**537 646**
I	138 372	488 597	56 400	84 144	49 101	62 455	821	81 539	19 816	283 902	**1 205 147**
L	608	1 024	293	1 730	5	0	0	667	147	0	**4 474**
NL	123 722	33 023	8 225	16 845	5 037	0	0	8 668	10 453	9 361	**215 334**
P	116 465	480 630	97 713	802 288	18 935	660	77 716	17 719	1 011	873	**1 614 010**
UK	2 100 255	771 640	52 693	44 957	172 589	0	0	179 816	112 148	6 655	**3 440 753**
Total (%)	**34**	**31**	**6**	**11**	**6**	**4**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**3**	**100**

The unemployed are the biggest group of ESF beneficiaries.

The 8.5 million unemployed account for 65% of all beneficiaries (34% long-term unemployed and 31% other unemployed). Apprentices (2%) and the disabled, along with women and pensioners, form a minority.

The United Kingdom has the most beneficiaries in absolute terms: 3.5 million persons, almost 70% of whom are long-term unemployed people.

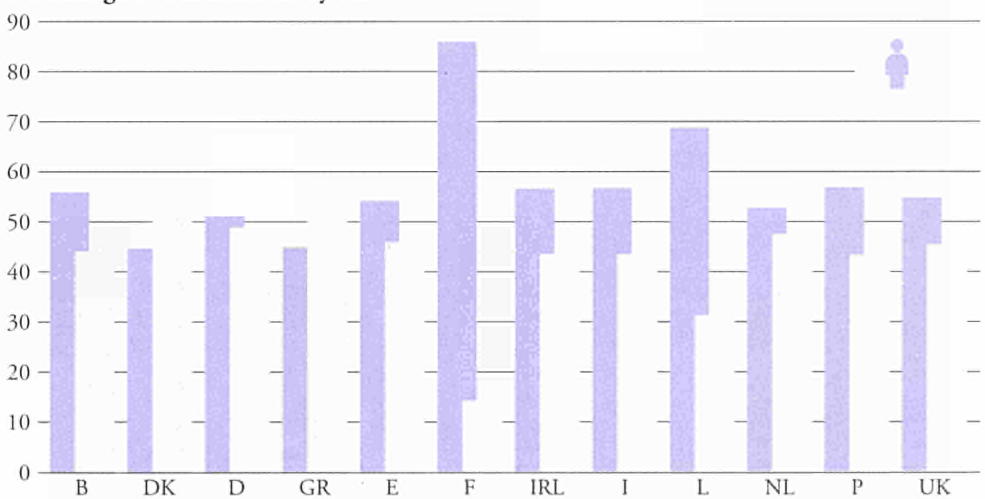
This is followed by Spain and France, which have a total of 2.9 million and 1.7 million beneficiaries respectively.

It is only in Portugal and Luxembourg that most of the beneficiaries are in a category other than that of the unemployed; in these two countries 50% and 39% respectively of beneficiaries are in work.

Of ESF beneficiaries 58% are men and 42% women.

The difference is greatest in France, where 86% of recipients are men and 14% women. In Denmark and Greece, on the other hand, the percentage of women receiving aid is higher than that of men.

Percentage of beneficiaries by sex



The Structural Funds intervene jointly in several ways.

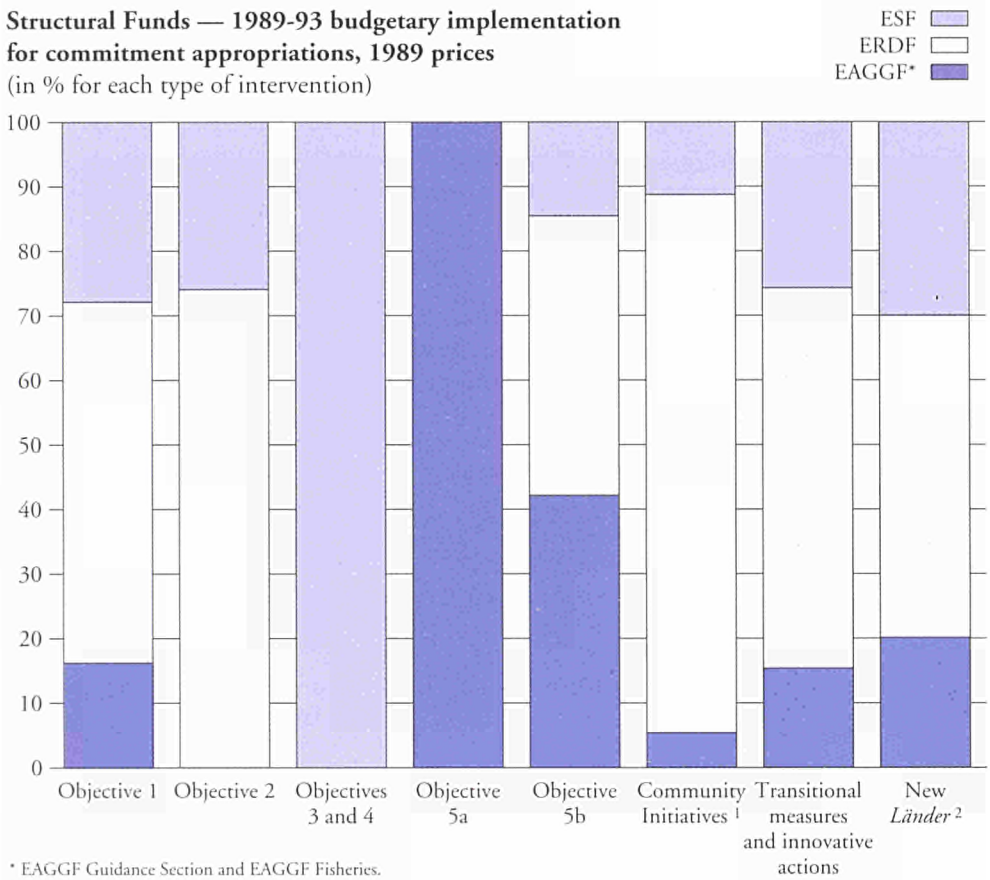
The 1989-93 budgetary contribution is divided between the three Structural Funds (ESF, ERDF EAGGF Guidance Section), covering measures taken under Objectives 1 and 5b, Community initiatives, transitional measures and innovative actions. The Structural Funds also contribute, in unequal proportions, to the budget allocated to the new *Länder*.

The ERDF contribution is most important in all types of intervention (except for the measures taken under Objectives 3, 4 and 5b, accounting for between 43.29 and 83.34% of the total amount per intervention.

The budgetary amounts allocated to the Structural Funds are constantly increasing.

For the 1994-99 period, amounts allocated to Objective 1 measures will increase considerably, their share of the total annual commitment appropriations rising from 66% in 1994 to 70% in 1999.

Structural Funds — 1989-93 budgetary implementation for commitment appropriations, 1989 prices
(in % for each type of intervention)



* EAGGF Guidance Section and EAGGF Fisheries.
1 Includes Community programmes.
2 1991 prices.

Breakdown by year of commitment appropriations for the 1994-99 period

(in million ECU at 1992 prices)

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	1994-99
Structural Funds and the FIFG [1]	20 135	21 480	22 740	24 026	25 690	27 400	141 471
Of which, regions classified under Objective 1	13 220	14 300	15 330	16 396	17 820	19 280	96 346
% of Objective 1 in the total	66	67	67	68	69	70	68

1 FIFG = Financial Instrument for Fisheries Guidance.

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WORKING CONDITIONS

LABOUR COSTS AND EARNINGS

Labour costs are all the expenditure which an employer incurs in employing workers during a given year. They include the direct cost, i.e. the gross wage or salary paid to the employee, and indirect costs, i.e. social security contributions and other expenditure. Indirect costs, income tax rates and employees' social security contribution rates vary from one country to another within the European Economic Area and affect the structure of labour costs; the differences are mainly the result of national social legislation and non-statutory obligations.

The fact that an employee costs his or her employer more in one country than in another does not mean that the employee is better paid, in either gross or net terms. Hourly or monthly earnings are the gross wages or salary which a person receives for work carried out. Employees' social security contributions and income taxes are not deducted from those amounts.

On average, employees in the services sector cost their employers more than employees in the industrial sector.

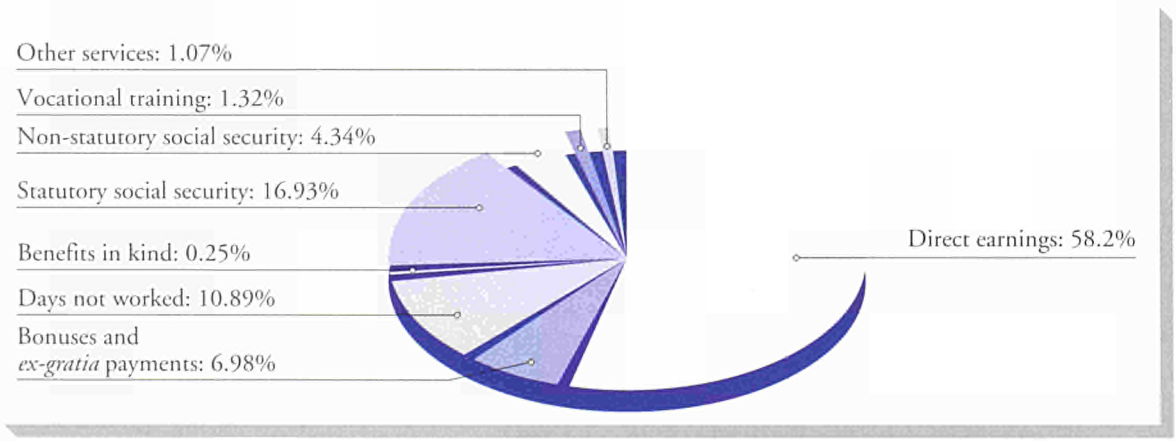
In some European Union countries, indirect costs make up almost one third of the total costs borne by employers.

Between 1981 and 1988, the percentage of total costs accounted for by indirect costs increased as a general rule.

The real earnings of workers in both industry and services have also, in general, increased since 1980.

Although different methods are used to fix the minimum wage in the seven Member States in question, that wage has remained relatively stable in most countries.

Structure of costs in industry, 1988 (EUR 12)

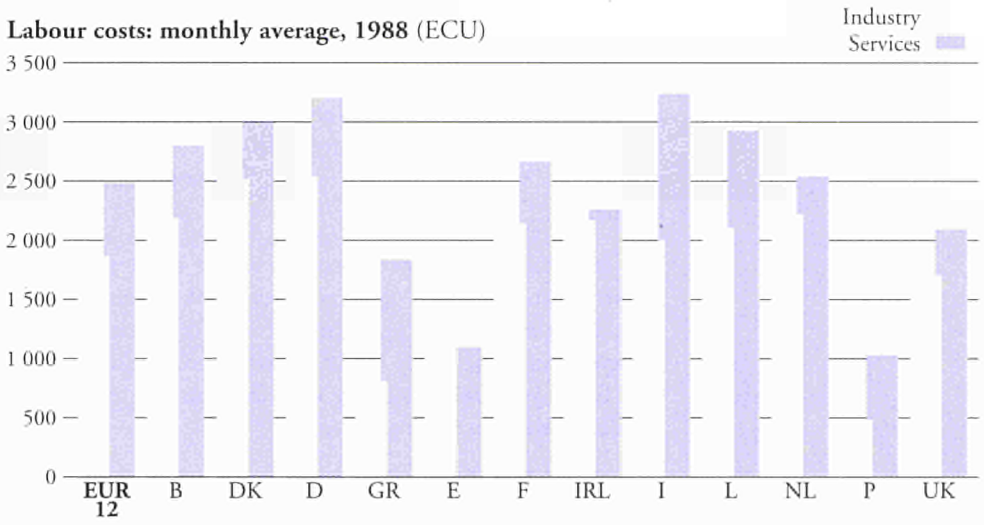


Throughout this chapter, the data for Germany relate to the former Federal Republic of Germany.

In 1988, the European average total monthly labour cost in manufacturing was ECU 1 858.

Per month of work, employers spent between ECU 473 in Portugal and ECU 2 510 in Germany. In the Netherlands, Denmark, Belgium, Ireland and France, labour costs were well above the European average whereas they were below average in Greece and Spain.

Labour costs: monthly average, 1988 (ECU)



In services such as banking, insurance and the distributive trades, monthly labour costs averaged ECU 2 486 in 1988.

Monthly costs were highest for bank employees at ECU 2 615, followed by insurance at ECU 2 533 and wholesale and retail distribution, with ECU 1 604. The highest labour costs in the European Union were incurred for workers in Denmark and Italy at ECU 3 199 and 3 235 respectively. Costs were lowest in Portugal (ECU 1 027) and Spain (ECU 1 095).

Labour costs in manufacturing, (ECU)

NB: Spain and Portugal: 1981 and 1984 data not available.

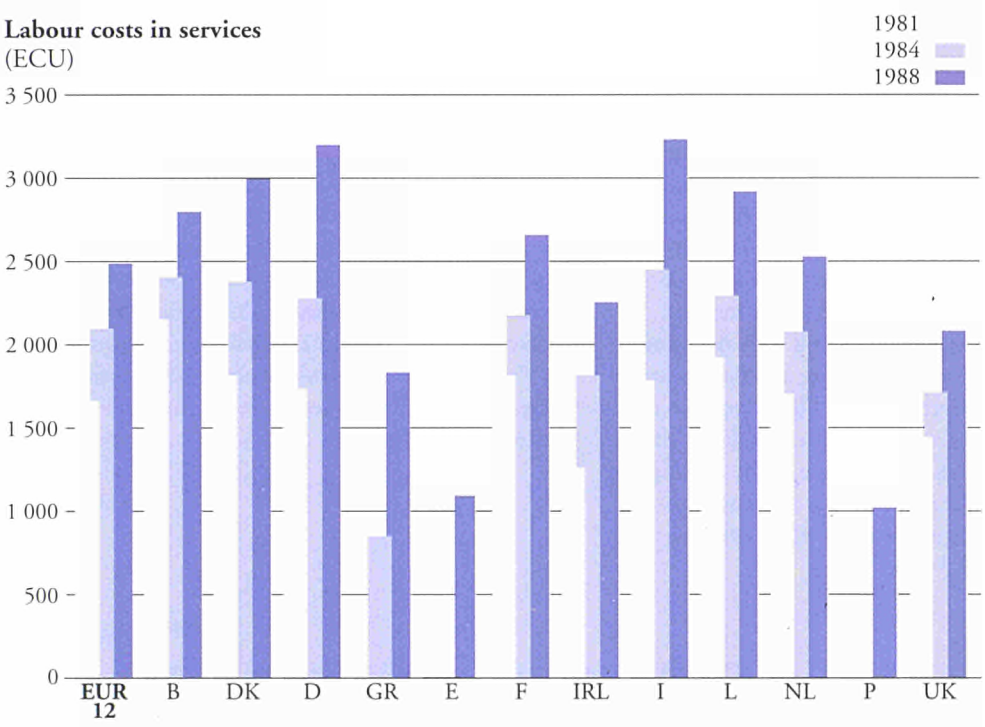
In manufacturing, labour costs rose by an average of 4.9% per annum between 1981 and 1988.

The increase was highest in Ireland (12.4%), followed by Italy (10%), whereas in Greece costs rose by only 3.7%. In the other European Union countries, the increase was between 4.5 and 6.5% over the same period.

In the services sector, employers' costs rose by an average of 5.9% per annum between 1981 and 1988.

The highest increases were in Denmark, Italy and Ireland – 9.2, 8.8 and 8.7% respectively. In the other countries costs rose by 3.8% in Belgium and 7.4% in Germany.

Labour costs in services
(ECU)



NB: Spain and Portugal: 1981 and 1984 data not available; Greece: 1981 data not available.

Total labour costs are divided into direct and indirect expenditure.

The structure of these costs differs from one European Union country to another, depending on national social legislation and non-statutory payments in force and the various methods of paying employees.

Direct expenditure covers payments in cash or in kind, such as:

wages or salaries in the strict sense (gross wages, including wage costs, income taxes and family allowances),

bonuses and *ex-gratia* payments,

payments for days not worked (leave, holidays, public holidays), and

benefits in kind (housing, company products, etc.),

whereas indirect expenditure comprises contributions to various social schemes to finance social protection and additional expenditure, namely:

statutory social contributions paid by the employer (health insurance, industrial accident insurance, etc.),

collectively agreed, contractual or voluntary payments (mutual insurance schemes, supplementary retirement schemes, etc.), and

other expenditure such as vocational training, working clothes, canteens, crèches.

During the 1980s, the percentage of indirect expenditure increased in most European Union countries.

The exceptions were the United Kingdom and Denmark, where the share of indirect costs fell whilst the share of direct costs rose. The average increase in the share of total costs accounted for by indirect expenditure was 0.19% per annum in manufacturing and 0.69% in the services sector. The increase in the share of indirect expenditure was higher in the case of the distributive trades (1.4% per annum) than insurance (0.61%) or banking (0.34%).

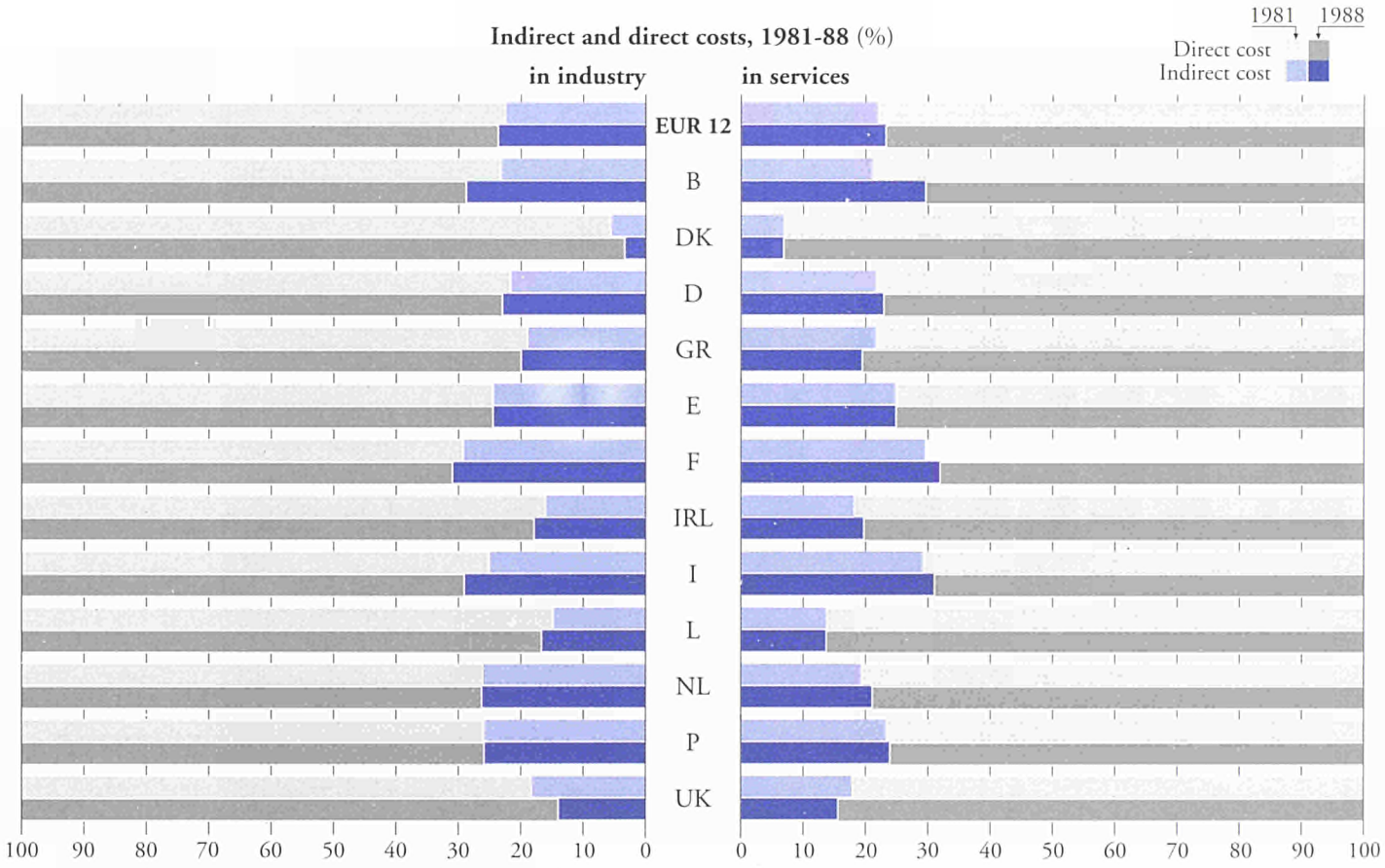
The increase in indirect expenditure is almost all due to the share of the total cost accounted for by social security contributions.

Actually, social security contributions rose by an average of 0.69% per annum in industry and 0.16% in services. The rise in the share of social security costs was most marked in the distributive trades at 0.79% per annum. The highest increase in the share of social security costs was in Belgium.

In 1988, labour costs in the manufacturing and services sectors were divided into two categories: direct costs represented an average of 75% of total costs and indirect costs 25%.

Structures varied considerably from one Union country to another. The share of direct costs was above the European average in the United Kingdom (86% in manufacturing and 84.42% in services), Luxembourg (83.3 and 86.32%), Ireland (82.1 and 80.29%) and Greece (80 and 80.12%).

Indirect and direct costs, 1981-88 (%)



NB: Greece: 1984 data; Spain and Portugal: 1981 and 1984 data not available.

Denmark is an extreme case, with most of its costs being direct as a result of a specific method of financing social protection based on employees' contributions to the public budget (96.6 and 93.17%).

At the opposite end of the scale, the percentage of direct costs is low in France (69 and 68.04%), Italy (70.9 and 68.97%) and Belgium (71.2 and 70.41%), implying a greater share of indirect costs.

In both industry and services, wages account for the major part of total labour costs.

Excluding Denmark, the share of employees' direct earnings in the European Union ranges from 73.1% in the United Kingdom to 51.2% in Italy for manufacturing and for services from 80.69% in the United Kingdom to 50.58% in France. Everywhere, apart from Luxembourg and France, wages account for the highest share in the commercial sector (67.63%) as against only 60.35% in insurance and 56.6% in banking.

Structure of labour costs in industry and services, 1988

(%)

	Direct earnings		Bonuses and *ex-gratia* payments		Days not worked		Benefits in kind		Total direct cost	
	Industry	Services	Industry	Services	Industry	Services	Industry	Services	Industry	Services
EUR 12	**58.20**	**64.24**	**6.98**	**7.46**	**10.89**	**4.65**	**0.25**	**0.38**	**76.31**	**76.72**
B	51.70	58.05	10.40	11.11	8.90	0.91	0.10	0.24	71.20	70.31
DK	83.40	91.19	0.90	1.63	12.30	0.25	0.00	0.11	96.60	93.17
D	56.30	57.34	9.10	8.46	11.50	10.97	0.10	0.38	77.00	77.15
GR	61.00	59.92	11.00	13.40	7.00	6.00	1.00	0.80	80.00	80.12
E	55.50	62.61	7.10	11.80	12.70	0.68	0.10	0.10	75.50	75.18
F	52.20	50.58	6.50	7.91	9.70	8.73	0.70	0.83	69.00	68.05
IRL	70.90	75.60	1.50	1.96	9.50	1.43	0.20	1.27	82.10	80.27
I	51.20	55.40	7.90	11.31	11.50	2.50	0.30	0.17	70.90	69.39
L	67.40	64.09	4.40	10.44	11.20	11.02	0.30	0.78	83.30	86.32
NL	55.10	70.28	7.70	8.42	10.90	0.17	0.10	0.04	73.70	78.92
P	55.90	58.09	11.60	12.03	6.30	5.69	0.40	0.26	74.10	76.07
UK	73.10	80.69	1.40	3.19	11.40	0.60	0.10	0.33	86.00	84.81

	Statutory social security		Non-statutory social security		Vocational training		Other services		Total direct costs	
	Industry	Services	Industry	Services	Industry	Services	Industry	Services	Industry	Services
EUR 12	**16.93**	**15.27**	**4.34**	**4.87**	**1.32**	**1.45**	**1.07**	**1.62**	**23.69**	**23.21**
B	25.40	24.57	1.90	2.49	0.30	1.01	0.90	1.29	28.50	29.36
DK	1.80	0.74	1.10	3.56	1.90	3.13	– 1.50	– 0.67	3.30	6.75
D	16.50	15.97	4.30	4.05	1.50	2.55	0.70	0.39	23.00	22.96
GR	18.00	18.60	1.00	0.80	0.20	0.80	0.10	0.40	19.30	20.60
E	22.80	22.29	1.50	2.46	0.20	0.19	0.10	– 0.17	24.60	24.76
F	19.20	18.33	8.50	8.75	1.70	1.73	1.60	3.20	31.00	32.01
IRL	8.70	7.97	6.20	8.53	1.20	1.23	1.70	1.95	17.80	19.67
I	24.70	27.12	1.10	1.50	1.40	1.30	1.90	1.11	29.10	31.03
L	12.70	10.12	3.00	2.79	0.50	0.54	0.50	0.27	16.70	13.73
NL	15.80	11.70	7.10	5.92	0.60	0.68	2.80	2.77	26.30	21.08
P	19.10	17.82	2.20	3.97	3.00	1.27	1.60	0.89	25.90	23.95
UK	7.30	6.63	4.20	5.36	1.30	1.03	1.20	2.57	14.00	15.59

NB: The negative results are due to large subsidies.

Payment for days not worked is, at 10.89%, the second-highest type of direct expenditure in manufacturing.

This expenditure varies from 12.7% in Spain to 6.3% in Portugal. In countries where the share of this type of remuneration is low, such as Portugal, Greece and Belgium, the share of bonuses and *ex-gratia* payments is higher.

In the services sector, bonuses and* ex-gratia *payments are the second-highest direct expenditure item at 7.46%.

However, payment for days not worked is lower (4.65%) than for industry.

Benefits in kind account for a minimal percentage of total direct costs.

At around 0.38% in services in general, benefits in kind are highest in the banking sector (0.5%).

Statutory social security contributions account for the largest share of indirect costs.

They are running at an average of 16.93% in industry and 15.27% in services.

These contributions are highest in Belgium, Italy (especially in the services sector) and Spain. They are lowest in Denmark, at 1.8% for industry and 0.74% for services.

Non-statutory social security payments are higher in the services sector, averaging 4.87%, than in industry (4.34%).

They are particularly important in the banking and insurance sectors (7.77 and 8.31% respectively), whereas for the distributive trades they total only 3.50%. In the services sector in France and Ireland, up to 8.75 and 8.53% respectively of employers' total costs went on non-statutory payments.

Vocational training accounts for 1.32% of total indirect costs in industry and 1.45% in services.

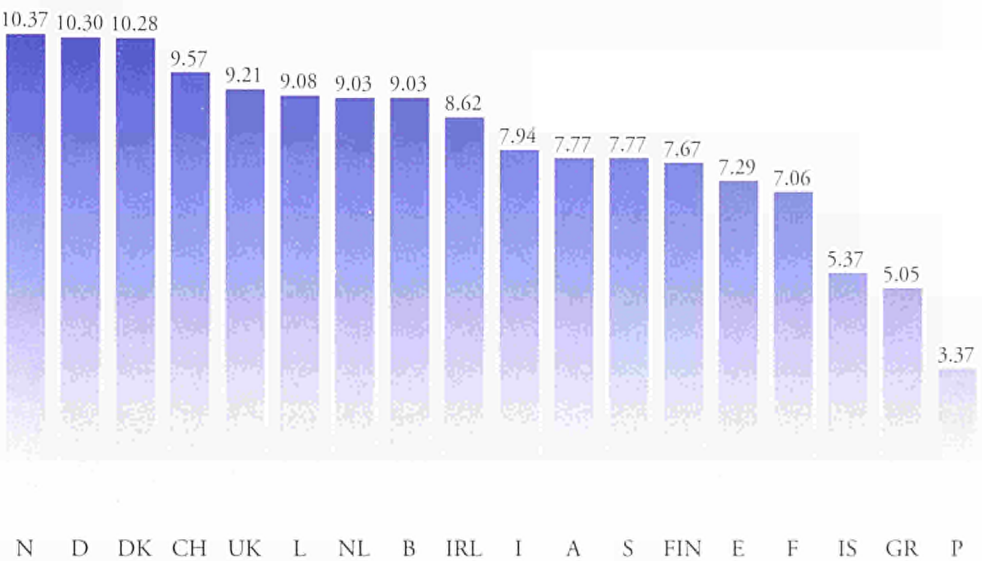
Employers in Denmark and Germany contribute most to vocational training in the services sector – 3.13 and 2.55% respectively. This contrasts with Portugal, where employers make roughly the same contribution (3%), but in the industrial sector.

With a view to comparing absolute levels of the average gross hourly earnings of manual workers, the data have been converted to the purchasing power standard (PPS), in order to eliminate differences in price levels from one country to another.

The purchasing power of the hourly earnings of manual workers in industry varies considerably in the European Economic Area.

For one hour of work in 1992, a manual worker in Norway received, on average, gross earnings of 10.37 PPS, followed closely by manual workers in Germany and in Denmark. Nine countries had earnings above the EEA average (8.43 PPS per hour). In six other countries, earnings were between 7 and 8.43 PPS.

Hourly earnings of manual workers in industry in the EEA and Switzerland, 1992 (PPS)



NB: Italy: estimate; Luxembourg: April 1991 data.

Iceland, Portugal and Greece had been at the bottom of the list since 1980, i.e. their manual workers had the lowest hourly wages.

In 1980, Norway was down in ninth position, behind Denmark, Luxembourg, Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands, Italy, the United Kingdom and Sweden.

The coefficient of variation of earnings (in PPS), a measure of the average degree of dispersion of the different countries, varied very little between 1980 and 1992, falling from 24.9 to 24.4%. Similarly, if the European Union is replaced by the European Economic Area, there is only a very slight fall in the European average (8.47 PPS in 1992 for the 12 countries).

The real earnings of manual workers in industry rose in all the EEA countries between 1980 and 1992.

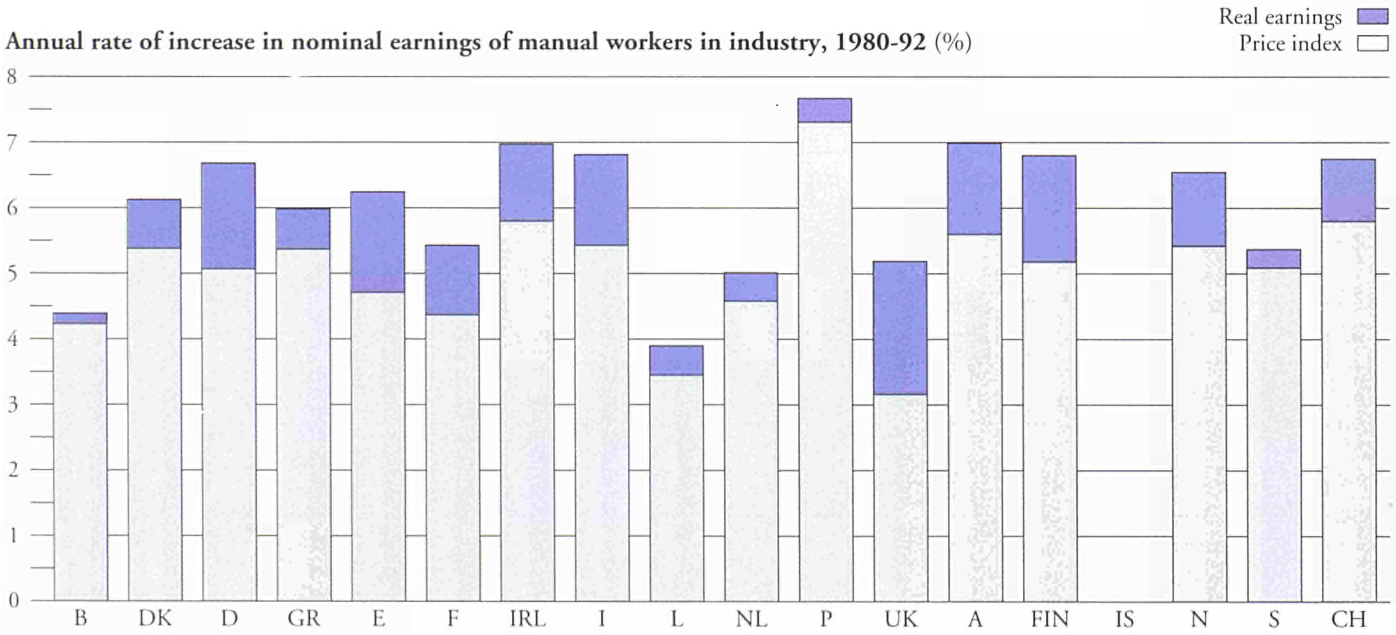
Over that period, wages rose more quickly than prices. The real increase in wages was highest in the United Kingdom (2.03% per annum) and lowest in Belgium (0.16%). The increase in nominal wages was highest in Portugal, but was mainly due to an adjustment in prices, which rose more sharply than in any other country of the European Economic Area.

In real terms, the wages of manual workers improved during the 12-year period, without converging.

The ratio between the highest real wages (in Denmark) and the lowest (in Portugal) increased slightly between 1980 and 1992. In 1980, it was 6.17 and in 1992, 6.46.

For the calculation of real earnings, (nominal) earnings have been deflated by price indices in ecus in order to cancel out the effects of changes in the exchange rates for the different currencies.

Annual rate of increase in nominal earnings of manual workers in industry, 1980-92 (%)



NB: Luxembourg: April 1991 data; Iceland: data not available.

The real earnings of non-manual workers in industry and services also increased.

There are exceptions in the case of non-manual workers in the retail trade in Greece and non-manual workers in industry in Italy, where real earnings have fallen since 1985.

In nine EEA countries, the monthly earnings of non-manual workers are higher in industry than in services.

In Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom, earnings in credit institutions are higher than in industry and retailing. In Portugal, a non-manual worker in industry earns 60% of the wages of a non-manual worker in credit institutions.

In 1992, the highest monthly earnings of non-manual workers in industry and retailing in the European Union were in Germany (ECU 2 889 and 1 798 respectively).

The lowest monthly earnings in those same sectors were in Portugal.

The differences between the earnings of non-manual workers in credit institutions and in the retail trade are largest in Portugal, Luxembourg, Spain and Belgium, with smaller gaps in Greece, Finland and Austria. The best earnings in all three sectors analysed were in Switzerland.

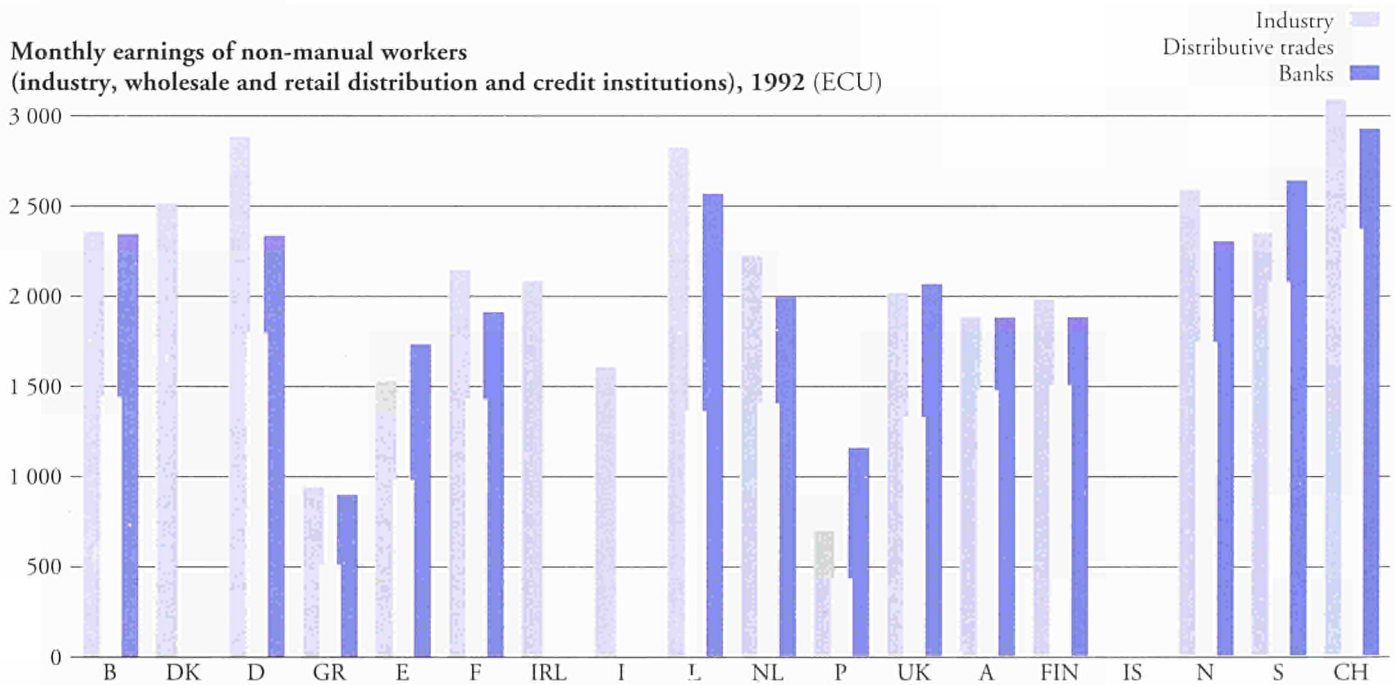
Index of real earnings: non-manual workers, October 1992

(base 1985 = 100)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	FIN	N	CH
Industry	113.9	111.3	121.0	109.6	112.7	114.5	116.8	94.6	109.0	108.5	136.9	114.1	113.4	105.2	105.7
Retail trade	111.5	:	125.4	93.8	:	114.1	:	:	111.5	106.8	:	116.7	128.6	110.6	107.4
Credit institutions	104.7	:	121.8	:	:	118.0	:	:	111.1	115.6	131.9	116.6	121.9	106.3	102.7

NB: Luxembourg: April 1991 data.

Monthly earnings of non-manual workers (industry, wholesale and retail distribution and credit institutions), 1992 (ECU)



NB: Luxembourg: April 1991; Iceland: data not available.

Since there are no recent data on the structure of wages, the harmonized statistics of earnings are the only source which sheds light on the differences between the sums received by men and women for the work they do. Use of these statistics is justifiable only if certain precautions are taken.

The harmonized statistics provide average earnings which conceal any differences in the job structure, qualifications, professional experience, hours worked or ages of men and women. These data refer mainly to industry, where fewer women work than men. In services, where a substantial proportion of employees are women, there are numerous gaps: for example, activities may only be partly covered or public services may be excluded.

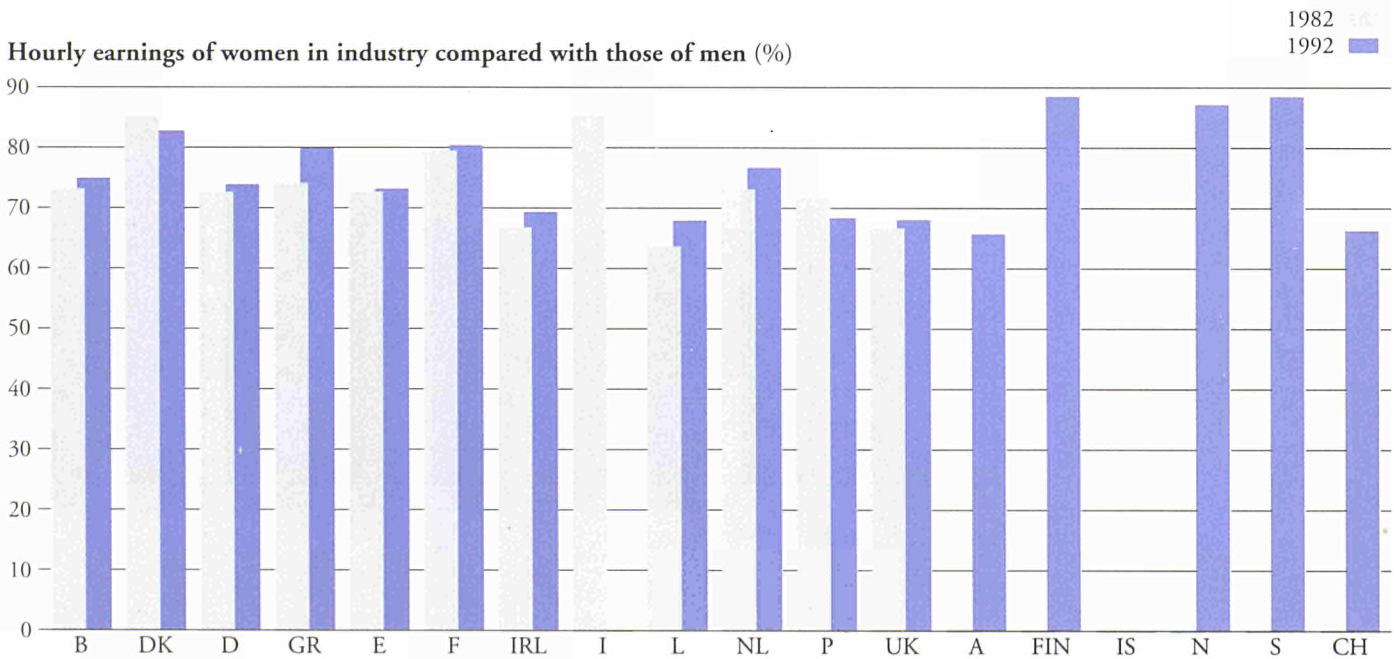
Various legal provisions in the European Union countries recommend that equal wages should be paid for equal work.

Although legally women may be paid at the same rate as men for equivalent work, structural differences mean that women's wages are on average lower than those of men.

The gap between the sums received by men and women in industry tended to narrow between 1982 and 1992.

The difference between the two sets of figures, which varies according to sector of activity and country, is largest in Austria and Switzerland. Women's wages are closest to those of men in Finland, Norway, Sweden and Denmark (there were no data for Italy for 1992).

Hourly earnings of women in industry compared with those of men (%)



NB: Luxembourg: April 1991 data; Greece: manufacturing; Iceland: data not available.

In the footwear and clothing industry, women's average hourly wages are almost level with those of men in Denmark.

In this sector of activity, where many women work, the difference had only been about 5% in 1992 in Denmark.

This difference rose to 14% in France and was as high as 59% in Luxembourg. Between 1982 and 1992, the gaps narrowed in Germany, Greece, Ireland and Spain. Whereas the figures for Portugal and the Netherlands remained stable over the period in question, the gap between the two sets of figures widened in Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom.

Hourly earnings of women in relation to those of men in the footwear and clothing industry (%)

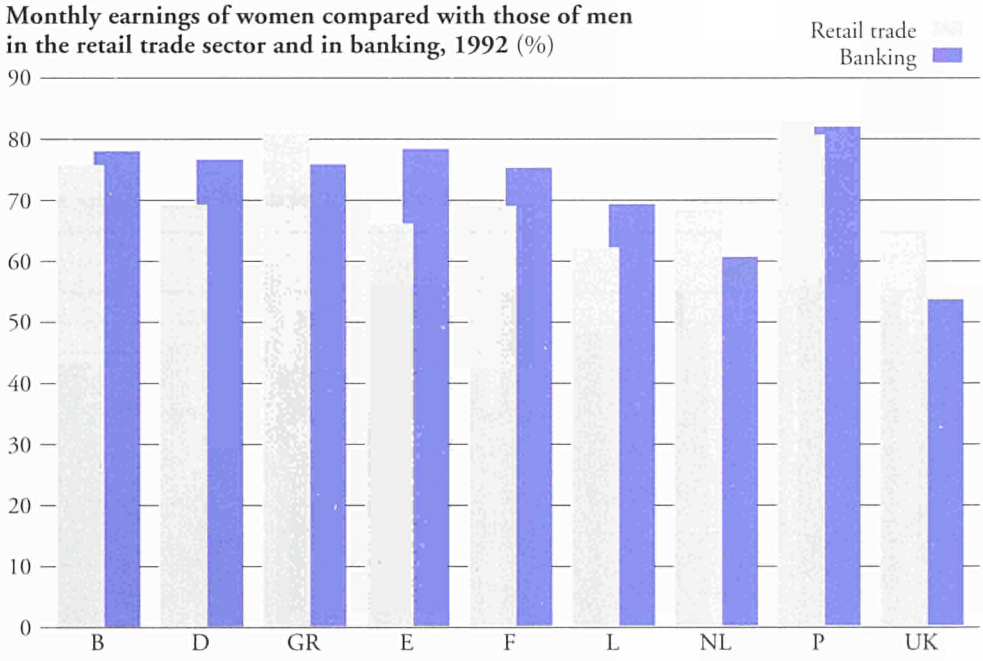
NB: Netherlands: 1982 and 1987 data; Luxembourg: 1982 and 1990 data; Spain and Portugal: 1989 and 1992 data.

In banking, another sector employing a high percentage of women, the differences vary from country to country.

The gap between the monthly earnings of women and men in 1992 was greatest in the United Kingdom (46.5%) and smallest in Portugal (18.25%).

There are no data available on the services sector in Denmark, Italy or Ireland. For the same year, the gap between the two sets of figures for the retail trade sector was smallest in Greece (19.33%) and largest in Luxembourg (38%).

Monthly earnings of women compared with those of men in the retail trade sector and in banking, 1992 (%)



NB: Luxembourg: April 1991 data.

The fixing of a minimum wage is one of the methods of protecting low wages. Employers may not pay a worker less than this minimum wage level.

Definitions and methods of organizing, indexing and negotiating minimum wages vary considerably from one country to another.

The minimum national wage results from action by the government, generally following consultation between the social partners in France, Greece, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Spain and Portugal. Minimum wages are fixed at sector level in Denmark, Germany and Italy. Belgium has a system of collective, tripartite bargaining between government, trade unions and employers' representatives.

There is no minimum wage in the strict sense of the term in the United Kingdom or Ireland. The wage councils in the United Kingdom (until 1993) and labour courts in Ireland (on the basis of recommendations by the joint labour committees) lay down minimum wages for certain vulnerable sectors.

In 1992, the minimum wage was more than 60% of the gross average of a manual worker in industry in France, the Netherlands and Belgium. The ratio was approximately 55% in Greece, Luxembourg and Portugal and 35% in Spain.

Since 1980, those who are paid at the minimum rate have seen their wages fall slightly compared with the average monthly wage of a manual worker in industry.

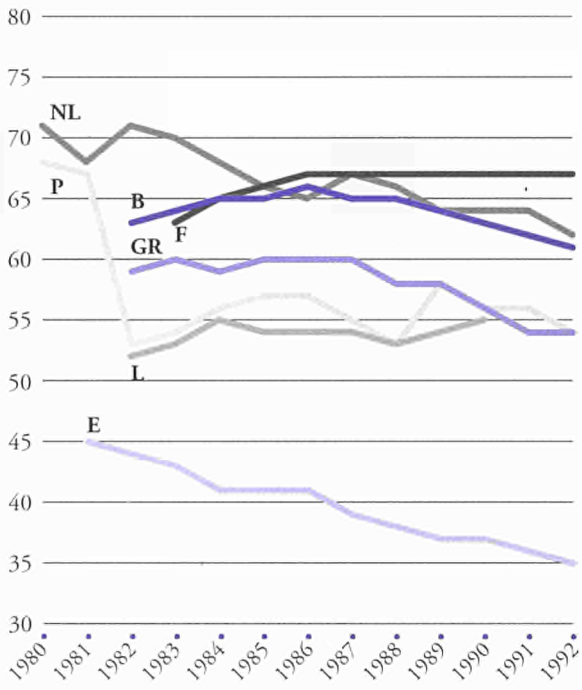
The exception, however, was for the workers in France and Luxembourg, where the trend has been upwards. In Portugal, the minimum wage fell sharply in 1982, when the amount was not reviewed. The gap between the average wage and the minimum wage has widened most noticeably in Spain and the Netherlands, and less widely in Greece.

The minimum wage varies from some ECU 200 in Portugal to over ECU 750 in the Netherlands.

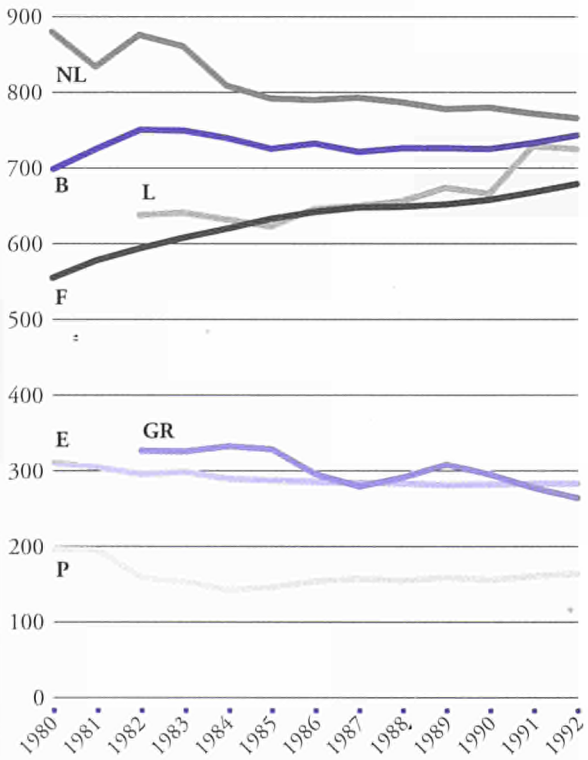
In those European Union countries which have a national minimum wage, there are enormous differences in level between countries and in changes in the minimum wage in relation to the average monthly wage for manual industrial workers. Movements in the figures between 1980 and 1992 show that the minimum wage fell or remained stable in most countries, the exceptions being Luxembourg and France.

The minimum wage in ecus is the wage in ecus deflated by price indices in ecus.

Minimum wages of manual workers in industry
(as a percentage of the monthly average)



Minimum wages (constant ECU)



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WORKING CONDITIONS

WORKING HOURS

In general, the statutory working week is not longer than 48 hours in the Member States of the European Union.

The 'Community labour force survey' (LFS) defines the normal working week (hours usually worked) and the actual working week (hours actually worked) with respect to a given reference week.

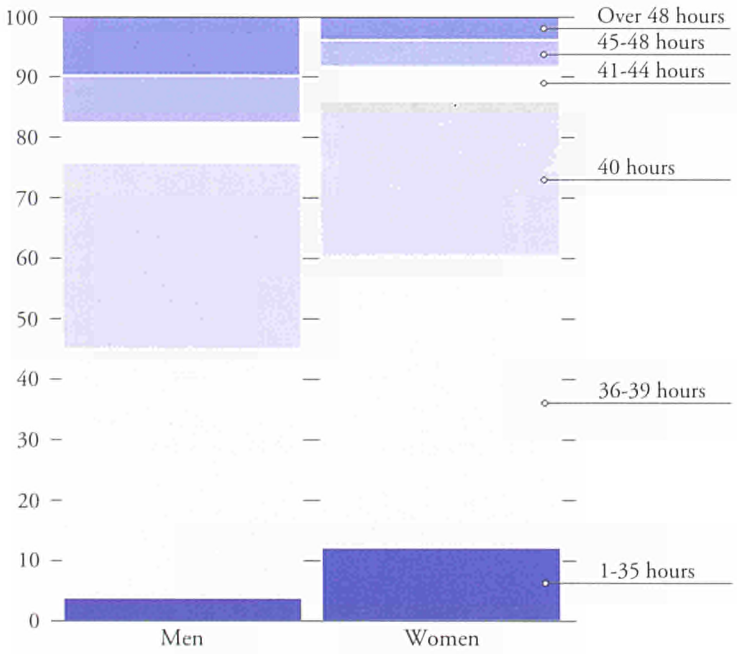
The normal working week was 42.08 hours in 1991, although this varies according to professional status and sector of activity. Employees work the shortest normal hours, with those in the agricultural sector working the longest.

Women have a shorter working day than men.

The difference between a normal working week and an actual working week is a means of measuring the duration of absences from work.

The main reasons for absence are leave and holidays (50%).

Groups of hours usually worked, men/women, 1991, EUR 12
(%)



At European level, the maximum number of statutory hours during which workers may be available for work is set at 48 hours per week.

Normal or statutory working hours represent the working time in which employees are, in principle, available for work. These hours, along with public holidays and leave, are determined by collective agreement and by each Member State's general legislation.

The average working week is shorter for women than for men.

It was equivalent to 38.77 hours for women and 41.10 hours for men. This gap occurs in the same ratio in all European Union Member States except the United Kingdom, where the difference is greatest (45.16 hours for men and 40.05 hours for women), and in Germany, where it is smallest (40 hours for men and 39.26 hours for women).

Normal weekly working hours by employee and by sex, 1991

	Total	Men	Women
EUR 12	**40.30**	**41.10**	**38.77**
B	37.96	38.46	36.88
DK	38.36	38.86	37.59
D	39.76	40.00	39.26
GR	40.26	41.02	38.77
E	40.53	40.93	39.61
F	39.73	40.44	38.68
IRL	40.43	41.70	38.28
I	38.66	39.76	36.62
L	39.78	40.45	38.30
NL	38.94	39.14	38.28
P	41.53	42.74	39.79
UK	43.41	45.16	40.05

The average working week amounted to 42.08 hours in 1991 for all those in full-time employment.

In general, the usual working week is roughly equivalent to statutory and/or agreed hours, although some employees do exceed it for various reasons, generally overtime.

Normal weekly hours worked by women fall mainly in the 1 to 39 hour tranches.

The proportion of women usually working 'over 48 hours' is much smaller than that of men, at 3.9% and 9.8% respectively. Germany is an exception to this with 3.1% of men and 3.6% of women.

The ***normal working week*** is determined by the 'Labour force survey' (LFS). It approximates to normal or statutory hours plus overtime, is viewed from the worker's perspective and comprises the number of hours usually worked by one person in a reference week. It includes all the hours worked as well as paid or unpaid overtime, but does not include travel time between the home and workplace or breaks or lunchtime. The LFS enables differences between the hours worked by men and women and variations by sector of activity to be analysed.

Leave and annual holidays as laid down by law or collective agreements

Member State	Statutory working week (in hours)	Average weekly working time by collective agreement (in hours)	Public holidays (in days)	Statutory annual leave	Average annual leave by collective agreement
Belgium	40	36-39	10	24 days [1]	5 weeks
Denmark	:	35-37	:	30 days	5 weeks
Germany	48	36-40	10-14	18 days [1]	5, 5-6 weeks
Greece	5 days [2]	35-40	9	22 days [1]	4-6 weeks
Spain	40	37-40	14	30 days	4, 5-5 weeks
France	39	35-39	10	30 days	5-6 weeks
Ireland	:	35-40	8	15 days [1]	4 weeks
Italy	48	36-40	4 (plus 11 others under certain conditions)	:	4-6 weeks
Luxembourg	40	37-40	10	25 days [1]	26-30 days
Netherlands	48	36-40	6 (plus 1 for every 5 years of work)	4 weeks	4-5 weeks
Portugal	48	34-48	12	22 days [1]	4, 5-5 weeks
United Kingdom	:	35-40	8	:	4-6 weeks

Sources: Commission report on labour legislation in Europe, ETUI, 1989-90.
Report on collective bargaining, 1990.

[1] Working days.
[2] Greek legislation does not give details of the number of hours.

Normal working hours also vary according to professional status.

The working hours of employers and the self-employed are above average (50.52 hours) as are those of family workers (48.10 hours); they are shorter for employees (40.30 hours).

In 1991, 7.8% of employees in the European Union had a normal working week of over 48 hours.

This figure rises to 20% of employees in the United Kingdom. It is much lower in the other Member States, where only Ireland is above the Community average (7.8 %) with 9.8%.

Half of employees usually work under 40 hours.

29.1% work 40 hours and 20.6% over 40 hours. The proportion of employees working under 35 hours remains small, at 6.8%. The majority of employees are grouped in the 36 to 39 hour tranche.

The normal working week is on average longer in the agricultural sector than in the industry and services sectors.

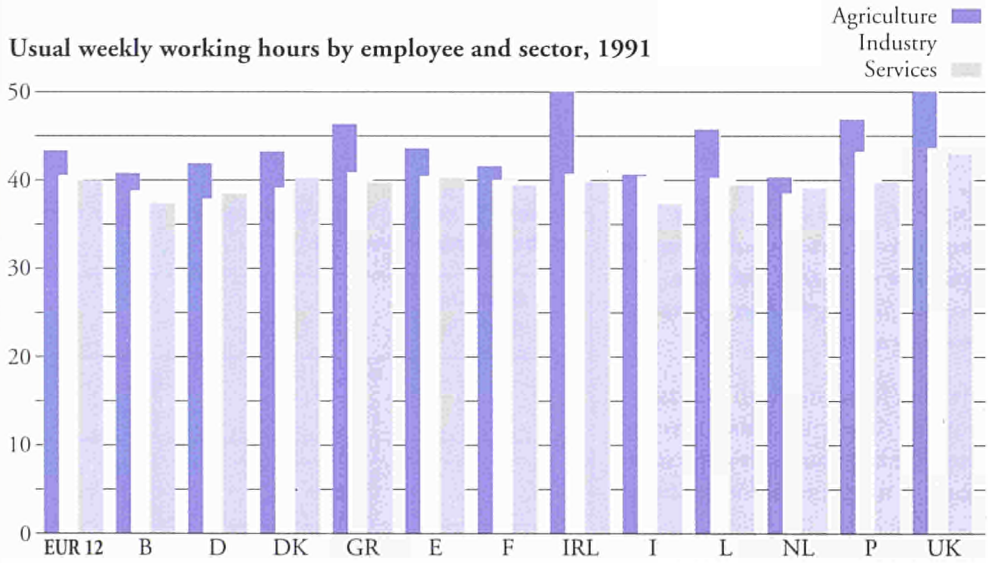
In agriculture, the average working week of 43.37 hours was exceeded in the United Kingdom (50.11 hours per week) and in Ireland (50.06 hours per week).

In industry, where the average was 40.54 hours, the working week came to about 43.68 hours in the United Kingdom and 43.24 in Portugal.

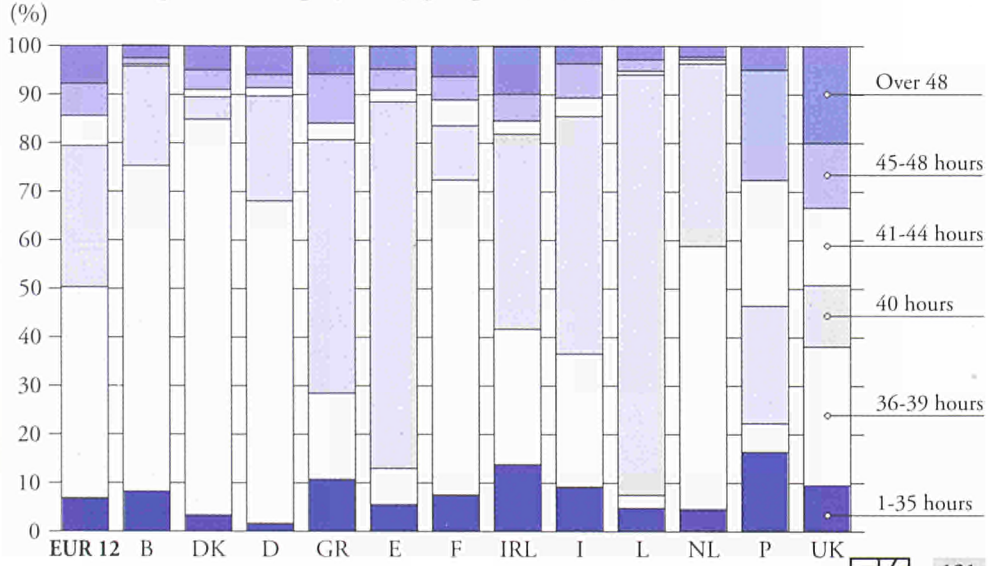
In the services sector, employees worked on average 40.02 hours, except in Spain, Denmark and the United Kingdom.

The gap between men and women was less marked in industry but more noticeable in agriculture and services.

Usual weekly working hours by employee and sector, 1991



Usual working week of employees by group of hours, 1991

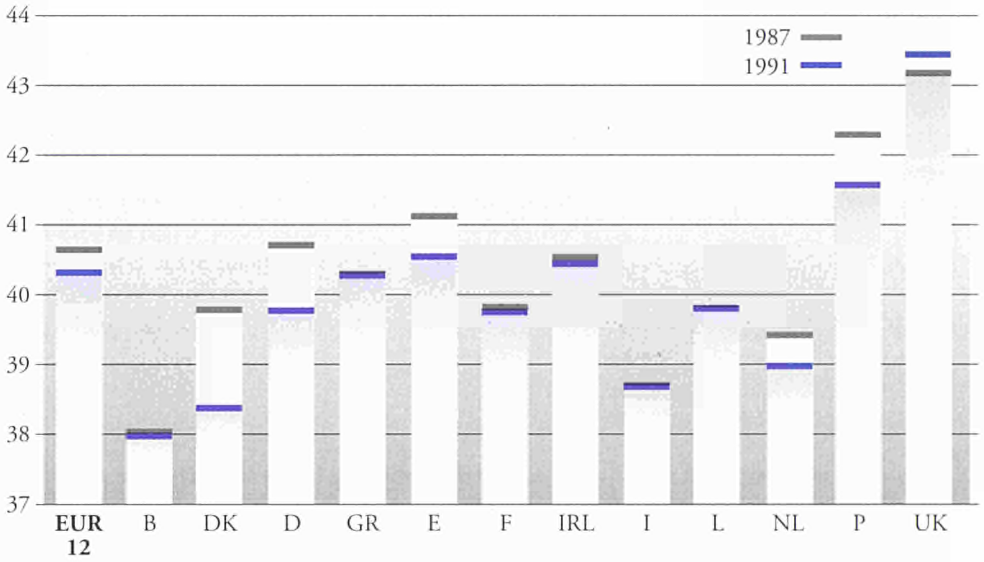


In the European Union as a whole, the employees' normal working week is tending to become shorter.

Only the United Kingdom registered slight increases between 1987 and 1991. Greece, Italy and Luxembourg tended to remain constant, while in Belgium, France and Ireland there were slight decreases.

There was a sharp decline in Denmark, Germany, Spain, the Netherlands and Portugal. However, in 1991, Denmark and Belgium still had the shortest working days.

Usual weekly working hours of employees, 1987-91

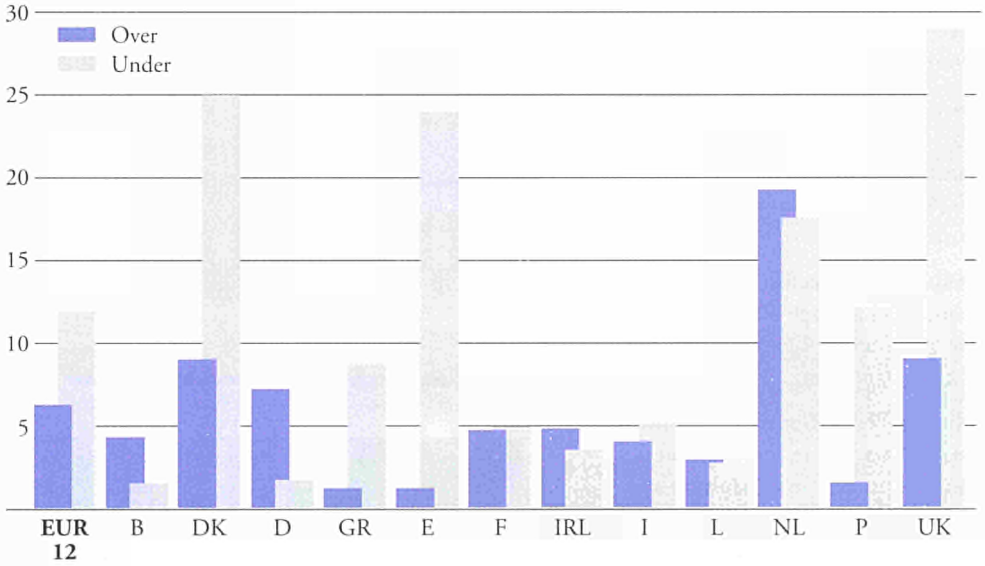


In 1991, 6.2% of persons in employment questioned during the reference week said that they worked for longer than the normal working week.

Member States in which normal working time is often above average also have large numbers of persons working full-time and/or flexitime.

In the Netherlands, where normal weekly hours are exceeded by a substantial amount, the number of persons working full-time is generally above the Union average.

Persons in employment who worked over or under the normal hours in the reference week (%)



In addition to normal weekly hours, the 'Labour force survey' (LFS) records *actual weekly working hours*, thus enabling the number of hours actually worked by one person in a reference week, including overtime but excluding absences, to be evaluated.

The main reasons for absence are leave or holidays.

Flexitime also accounts for almost a quarter of absences, a significant increase: 24.5% of absences in 1991, compared with 4.4% in 1988. The percentage of absences due to sickness or accident, special leave and education/training is higher for women than for men.

Main reasons for absence from work,[1] 1991 (EUR 12)

(%)

Reason for absence	Total	Men	Women
Leave and holidays	50.68	41.32	49.61
Flexitime	24.51	25.00	23.70
Sickness and accident	5.90	4.90	7.58
Bad weather	4.53	5.00	3.74
Special leave	2.82	41.32	3.65
Short-time working	2.70	2.98	2.23
Education/training	1.19	1.10	1.33
Industrial dispute	0.39	0.43	0.31
Maternity	0.13	0.02	0.30
Other	7.15	6.92	7.54

[1] Persons having worked fewer than the normal hours in the reference week.

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WORKING CONDITIONS

LABOUR RELATIONS

Labour disputes usually take the form of general strikes or strikes in a particular sector, lasting for shorter or longer periods.

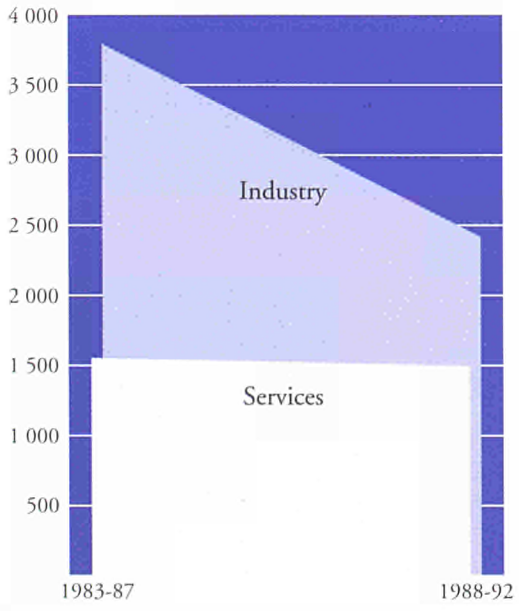
The 'number of days of work lost per 1 000 workers' is the basic indicator of disputes. It shows the number of days lost owing to strikes or lockouts[1] during a given year in relation to the average number of workers during the same year.

Over the past few years, there have been fewer disputes than previously, especially in the industrial sector.

There was a minimal number of disputes in agriculture, taking place mainly in southern Europe (Spain and Italy) where there are still substantial numbers employed.

The percentage of trade union membership varies considerably from one European Union country to another. Between 1980 and 1991, rates of membership expressed as a percentage of total numbers of employees varied very little.

Days of work lost per 1 000 employees, by sector, EUR 12



[1] Temporary closure of the enterprise decided by the employer.

There was a sharp fall in disputes during the period 1988-92 compared with 1983-87.

The big falls were situated particularly in Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, the United Kingdom, in Finland and in Norway. The fall was slighter in France and the situation remained steady in the Netherlands.

A slight increase, but with extremely small historical values, was found in Austria and in Luxembourg. Only Greece and Sweden noticed increases.

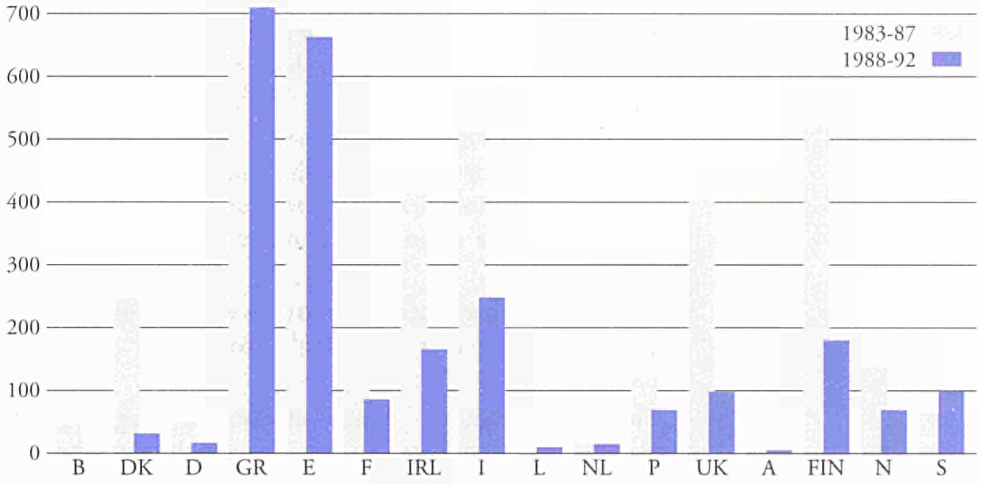
Those countries where there were virtually no, or very few, disputes between 1983 and 1987 saw relatively few days lost through strikes between 1988 and 1992.

In 1990, there were 10 days of dispute in Luxembourg (Post Office and Telecommunications). In 1991, there were 19 days of strikes in the services sector in Austria and in 1992, 60 days of disputes in the German civil service.

Greece and Spain had the highest average number of disputes between 1988 and 1992.

In Greece, 710 working days were lost as a result of successive general strikes and public sector disputes in 1990. In Spain, the average was 663 days lost during the same period as a result of general disputes at both sectoral and regional levels.

Average number of days lost in industry and services
(per 1 000 employees)



NB: Belgium: no data available for 1983-87.
Germany: data refer to the former Federal Republic of Germany.

Number of days lost in industry and services

(per 1 000 employees)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	A	FIN	N	S
1983	:	36	2	324	720	102	382	975	0	27	229	178	0	361	4	9
1984	:	61	246	275	1 087	132	471	611	0	7	99	1 278	0	754	62	8
1985	46	1 041	2	618	546	69	52	266	0	20	101	299	8	84	38	127
1986	:	40	1	712	335	106	378	390	0	8	145	90	1	1 353	575	171
1987	:	58	1	1 317	692	98	327	316	0	11	42	164	2	64	7	4
1988	75	40	2	505	1 509	106	177	224	3	2	70	166	0	88	45	199
1989	50	23	4	702	454	174	62	300	0	4	123	182	1	98	10	101
1990	38	42	15	1 720	265	67	266	341	33	37	50	83	3	446	79	188
1991	25	30	6	432	463	48	100	195	11	17	41	34	19	230	1	5
1992	40	27	60	192	626	37	223	182	3	15	63	24	3	39	208	7
1983-87	:	247	50	649	676	101	416	512	0	15	123	402	2	523	137	64
1988-92	46	32	17	710	663	86	166	248	10	15	69	98	5	180	69	100
Variation (in %)	:	– 87	– 65	9	– 2	– 15	– 60	– 51	–	0	– 44	– 76	–	– 66	– 50	57

NB: – = calculation not significant.

The principles for drawing up statistics on industrial disputes are given in the International Labour Office Resolution on statistics on strikes, lockouts, etc., which was adopted at the 15th International Conference of Labour Statisticians in 1993.

Nevertheless, this Resolution is not applied in the same fashion in all the Member States of the European Economic Area, and international comparisons must therefore be treated with caution.

In the industrial sector, the rate at which the level of disputes varies from one period to another is influenced by the scale of particular disputes during a given year.

Major disputes in Italy in 1983, in Germany and the United Kingdom in 1984 and in Norway and Finland in 1986 led to a large negative change between one period and the next. The number of disputes also tended to fall in Portugal and France. In the Netherlands, the 1990 building industry dispute was the reason for the 97% increase between the two periods, even though the overall level remained moderate at 40 days.

The serious dispute in the extractive industries in Sweden in 1988 had a major impact on the rate of increase. In Greece, where the average number of days lost is highest, the number of disputes peaked in 1990.

In the services sector, where there has been a steep rise in employment during the past few years, the number of disputes remained roughly the same.

However, there was a substantial rise between the two periods in Germany (public service disputes in 1990 and 1992) and in Greece (39%) and France (12%).

On the other hand, there were significant falls in Denmark (down 89%), Ireland (69%), the Netherlands (59%), Italy (49%) and Finland (47%) and below-average rates of decline in the United Kingdom (21%) Portugal (7%), Norway and Sweden (5%).

In Austria and Luxembourg, where there are relatively few disputes, there was a slight increase.

With no breakdown for 1983-87, the two periods cannot be compared in Spain and Belgium.

Number of days lost, breakdown into industry and services, 1983-87 and 1988-92

(per 1 000 employees)

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1983-87	1988-92	Variation (in %)
B	:	:	102	:	:	75	113	98	65	80	:	86	:
	:	:	17	:	:	76	15	6	3	31	;	26	:
DK	100	180	2 898	116	113	118	59	103	96	82	681	92	– 87
	13	16	332	10	37	10	8	18	4	6	82	9	– 89
D	4	550	2	2	3	4	6	10	13	24	112	11	– 90
	0	5	1	0	0	0	3	18	1	86	1	22	–
GR	566	610	619	365	693	703	408	1 610	471	468	571	732	28
	138	47	531	585	615	441	407	1 436	335	49	383	534	39
E	:	:	:	:	:	1 148	744	341	735	480	0	696	–
	:	:	:	:	:	755	212	205	178	291	0	328	–
F	163	170	95	73	65	130	111	46	55	45	113	77	– 32
	51	106	41	83	76	84	196	64	31	24	71	80	12
IRL	385	592	476	187	450	237	98	735	58	38	418	233	– 44
	397	423	568	499	277	154	46	27	126	313	433	133	– 69
I	1 607	770	434	350	435	255	282	616	308	278	719	348	– 52
	503	498	145	432	240	180	356	177	101	117	364	186	– 49
L	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	–
	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	49	17	5	0	15	–
NL	1	8	59	25	9	3	8	127	40	23	20	40	97
	39	6	4	2	13	1	3	2	8	12	13	5	– 59
P	307	170	174	119	41	39	85	57	41	62	162	57	– 65
	176	41	41	188	43	112	175	47	45	76	98	91	– 7
UK	337	3 608	732	184	125	279	138	177	43	18	997	131	– 87
	98	120	92	47	186	120	205	45	32	27	109	86	– 21
A	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	–
	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	30	4	0	7	–
FIN	437	834	193	2 287	145	223	148	101	64	88	779	125	– 84
	335	748	25	876	23	20	75	641	307	12	401	211	– 47
N	7	8	131	1 190	3	5	6	112	0	44	268	33	– 87
	2	87	1	338	9	63	11	69	2	271	87	83	– 5
S	6	14	7	3	11	653	40	8	5	0	8	141	–
	11	4	186	254	1	2	143	271	6	10	91	86	– 5

NB: – = calculation not significant.

Industry
Services

With the social dialogue and good relations between the two sides of industry in mind, there are plans to compile statistics which can be used to assess the rate of trade union membership at Union level.

This is a complex task, however, because it is not easy to compare the data available.

The International Labour Office is responsible for laying down criteria for international labour statistics. Since the criteria for defining trade union membership have not yet been laid down, the Member States use very different systems of measurement.

Ireland and the United Kingdom are the only countries whose legislation includes a precise definition governing the activities and formation of trade unions.

There is no strict definition of what constitutes a trade union which is applied in all Member States and definitions and registrations are much more flexible.

Consequently, not all trade unions and small confederations are included in the statistics. There are also major differences in ways of counting numbers, depending on whether or not certain membership categories such as apprentices, retired workers, students and, more significantly, the unemployed, are included.

Criteria, data collection systems and sources vary from one Member State to another.

The sources are administrative bodies in Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands, Denmark and the United Kingdom and trade unions, insurance organizations, social protection administrations and other departments in the other Member States. Trade unions are not obliged to keep their statistics up to date.

Trade unions frequently count membership on the basis of their membership applications or subscription payments. In those countries where trade unions have traditionally found it difficult to collect subscriptions, statistics may not be reliable.

The role of trade unions in the administration of certain social benefits and the existence or non-existence of negotiating bodies elected at enterprise level, together with the different procedures for collective bargaining, undoubtedly have an impact on trade union membership rates. Various tendencies may be discerned in 11 Member States of the Union (insufficient data are available for Greece) and these may be grouped into four models, as described below.

Denmark's system is unique among European Union countries.

The fact that trade unions manage independent unemployment benefit schemes encourages trade union membership as a way of ensuring that benefits are collected, even if in practice other ways of collecting them are possible. This special arrangement explains why over 90% of workers belong to trade unions.

In the Benelux countries and Germany, the trade unions are involved in the management of various social benefits.

They have important responsibilities at enterprise level for economic and financial issues and a long-standing tradition of national or branch-level agreements. In most cases, there are relatively few disputes and membership rates are fairly high: around 70% in Belgium, 50% in Luxembourg, 40% in Germany and 30% in the Netherlands.

In the United Kingdom, negotiations are conducted by trade union delegates (shop stewards) at enterprise level.

There is therefore a less firmly-rooted tradition of bargaining at branch level and very little tradition of participation in the management of social benefits. These benefits are provided by the unions themselves. Since the 1970s, the authorities have strictly curtailed the power of trade unions at enterprise level, and this might well explain the drop in membership rates in the United Kingdom and Ireland.

Estimate of trade union membership as a ratio of the total number of workers

(%)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
1980	59.70	86.73	40.60	:	:	18.79	45.83	62.11	54,29	37.46	61.11	56.31
1981	62.82	85.31	40.96	:	8.50	18.90	53.13	61.18	52.17	36.21	:	55.30
1982	66.03	88.80	39.93	:	9.94	17.95	52.95	61.57	:	36.60	:	53.45
1983	69.37	90.51	40.03	:	10.43	17.26	53.65	61.70	:	34.70	:	53.33
1984	70.48	91.45	39.50	:	10.22	17.68	49.61	63.06	:	33.09	:	51.77
1985	71.69	90.77	40.49	:	10.62	15.65	49.83	61.46	:	31.39	58.17	50.51
1986	72.31	88.81	39.99	36.73	11.09	13.91	44.90	61.73	:	30.69	:	49.28
1997	74.03	89.32	39.58	:	11.45	12.79	49.26	62.97	:	27.84	48.98	48.53
1998	71.33	86.41	39.39	:	11.95	11.49	49.47	64.56	:	27.21	:	46.62
1999	70.32	88.43	39.06	:	12.38	10.16	:	64.80	46.07	27.27	:	44.83
1990	67.73	86.52	38.38	:	13.18	10.46	:	64.97	:	27.05	:	43.40
1991	67.45	90.47	41.79	:	15.12	10.62	:	65.65	:	27.06	:	:

Source: Eurostat, on the basis of various national sources (trade union organizations and Ministry of Labour registers).

In southern Europe, enterprise-level committees play a major role as the negotiating body and trade unions play a minor role within the enterprise.

Branch-level negotiations also depend on the level of representativeness obtained at elections held within enterprises. This model does not encourage trade union membership, since non-union members may also take advantage of benefits obtained by bargaining.

This is a much more dispute-oriented model, with a more ideological base for trade union membership and a participation rate which may exert a certain amount of influence on a country's economic policy (especially in Italy and Spain).

Nevertheless, in most of the countries concerned, the trade unions tend to be abandoning enterprise-level committees in favour of trade union organizations. Union membership rates are very high in Italy (around 60%) and Portugal (around 50%) but much lower in Spain (around 15%, but steadily increasing). France has recorded the largest drop in union membership of all the European Union countries (10%).

The relative increases in membership noted in some Member States in 1991 compared with 1989 and 1990 are attributable to the drop in numbers of employees rather than to any genuine rise in the number of trade union members.

This holds true in Italy, France, and Spain. In Germany, 1991 saw a break in the series compared with previous years, as a result of the incorporation of the new *Länder*, which led to a significant rise in the level of trade union membership.

The rate of trade union membership has been estimated, from the data available, as the number of workers belonging to trade unions in relation to the number of workers who have a job. Non-active population categories are excluded.

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LIVING CONDITIONS

SOCIAL PROTECTION

Social protection expenditure, whether per capita or as a percentage of gross domestic product, tended to converge in the Member States between 1980 and 1992.

Over the same period, the proportion of social protection financed by employers' contributions fell markedly and the proportion financed by protected persons increased.

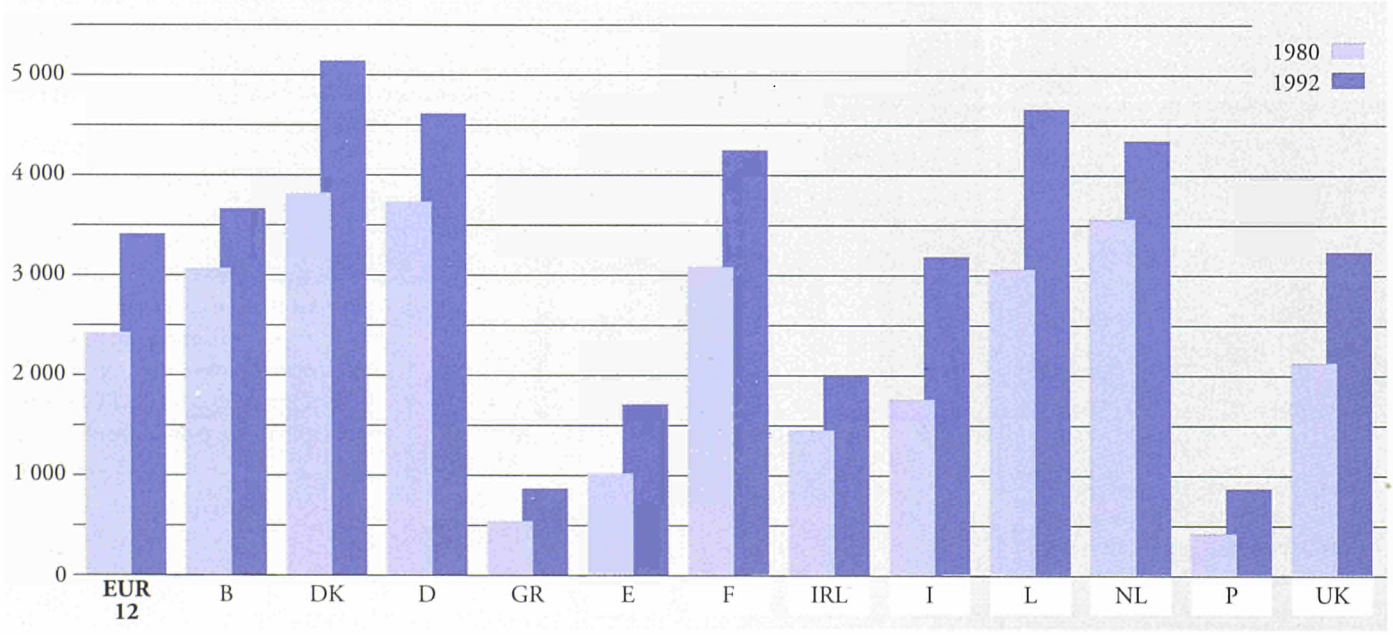
Overall in the European Union countries, the value of benefits under the old-age/survivors function has increased, in real terms, more quickly than total social benefits. In addition, the ageing of the population, accompanied by a slowdown in economic growth, is jeopardizing the capacity of the schemes to meet their future financial obligations.

The growth in sickness benefits was moderate (discounting general inflation) in most countries.

Following the increase in unemployment, real expenditure on unemployment benefits increased in the Member States.

The proportion of GDP accounted for by family allowances fell between 1980 and 1992.

Per capita social protection expenditure (ECU at 1985 prices)



In this chapter the data for Germany refer to the former Federal Republic of Germany.

In 1992, average per capita social protection expenditure in the European Union was ECU 4 348 (at current prices).

Per capita expenditure in the individual Member States ranged from ECU 1 127 in Greece to ECU 6 687 in Denmark, a ratio of 1 to 6. This spread reflects the large disparities in the degree of protection afforded to European citizens in respect of old age, sickness, unemployment, poverty, etc.

The degree of social protection enjoyed by citizens of the European Union is linked to institutional, structural and financial factors.

Social protection systems have evolved differently in the various Member States. Some countries place more emphasis on direct intervention by the State, whereas in others protection is based more on labour contracts and membership of professional organizations. There are further differences in social needs, which are linked to demographic, economic, political and cultural factors, such as the proportion of elderly persons in the population, unemployment rates, etc.

In addition, the financial resources available vary markedly from one country to another. In 1992 per capita GDP in Greece was only 36% of the average for the European Union. The most privileged Member States from this point of view, i.e. Germany and Denmark, exceeded this average by approximately 33%.

Council Recommendation 92/442/EEC of 27 July 1992, on the convergence of social protection objectives and policies, states that

'Member States should:

guarantee a level of resources in keeping with human dignity;

give any resident the chance to benefit from the health system;

further social integration and integration into the labour market;

provide employed workers who cease work at the end of their working lives or are forced to interrupt their careers owing to sickness, accident, maternity, invalidity or unemployment, with a replacement income;

examine the possibility of introducing and/or developing appropriate social protection for self-employed persons.'

Social protection expenditure is any expenditure involved in meeting costs incurred by individuals or households as a result of the materialization or the existence of certain risks, contingencies or needs, in so far as this expenditure gives rise to the intervention of a 'third party', without there being any simultaneous equivalent counterpart by the beneficiary.

A ***basic scheme*** is a social protection scheme which, pursuant to the provisions or laws or regulations, provides for primary protection against one or more risks.

A ***complementary scheme*** is one under which benefits are granted only in cases where the primary benefit is already granted under a basic scheme. It may be compulsory or voluntary.

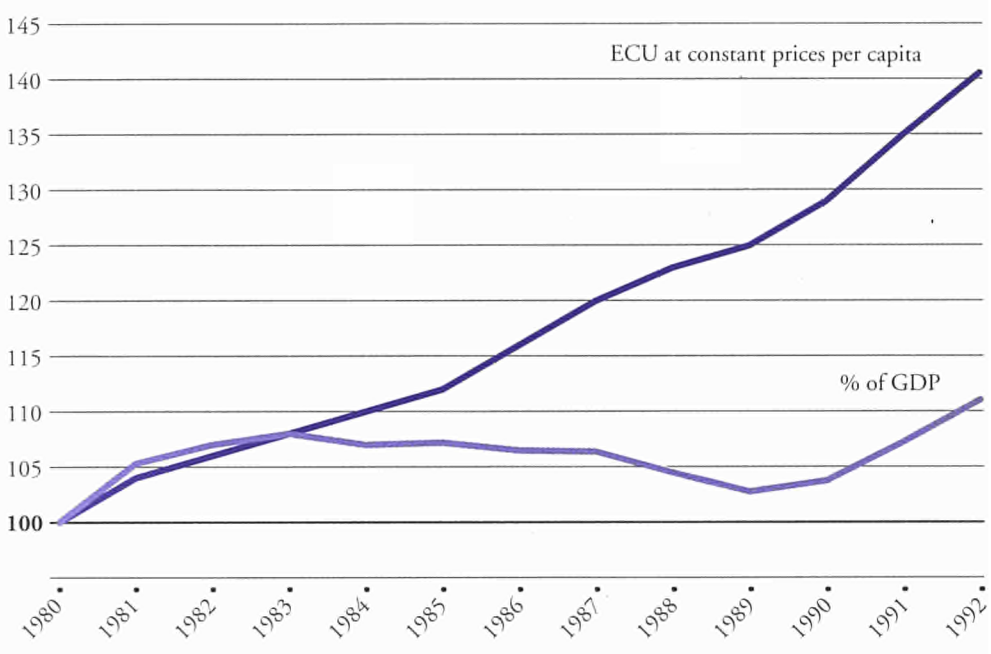
A ***means-tested social assistance scheme*** is one under which the conditions for the award of the benefits include, generally speaking, a means test.

Growth in social protection expenditure is linked to the development of gross domestic product.

Overall in the European Union, per capita social protection increased by 40.6% between 1980 and 1992, whereas the ratio between social protection and GDP increased by only 11.1%. In this period, there were two turning points in the trend in social protection expenditure (as a percentage of GDP), one in 1983 and the other in 1989.

Between 1980 and 1983 social protection expenditure as a percentage of GDP continued the upward trend of the 1970s. The efforts of governments to reduce the burden of social protection were fairly successful between 1983 and 1989. After 1989, under the combined effect of increased demands on the social protection system and the economic recession, social protection expenditure as a percentage of GDP again began to grow rapidly.

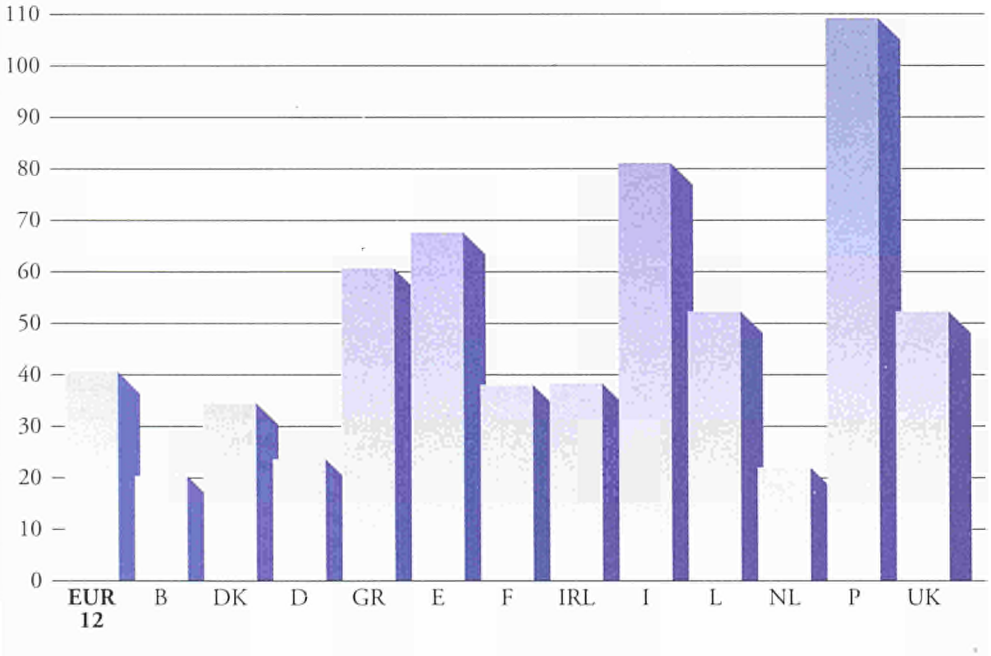
Current social protection expenditure in the European Union
(1980 = 100)



Over the period 1980-92, overall social protection expenditure in the Member States tended to converge.

The ratio between per capita social protection expenditure in ecus in Portugal and Germany was 1:10 in 1980. In 1992 this ratio was 1:4.5. Over the period 1980-92, in the six Member States with the lowest per capita social protection expenditure, the real growth in this expenditure was 68.2%. The corresponding figure for the other six countries was only 31.7%.

Real growth rates in per capita social protection benefits, 1980-92

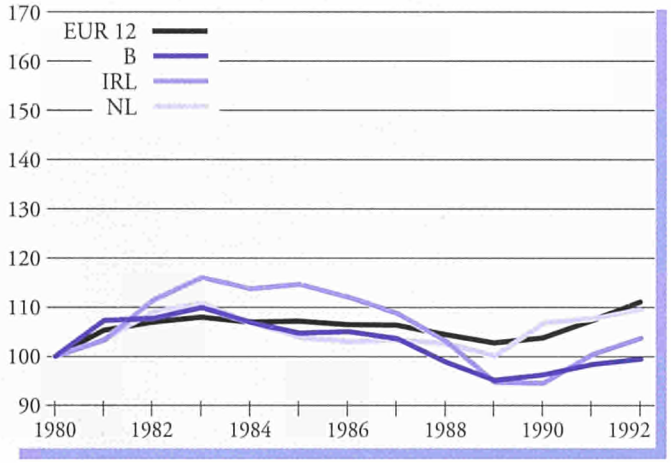


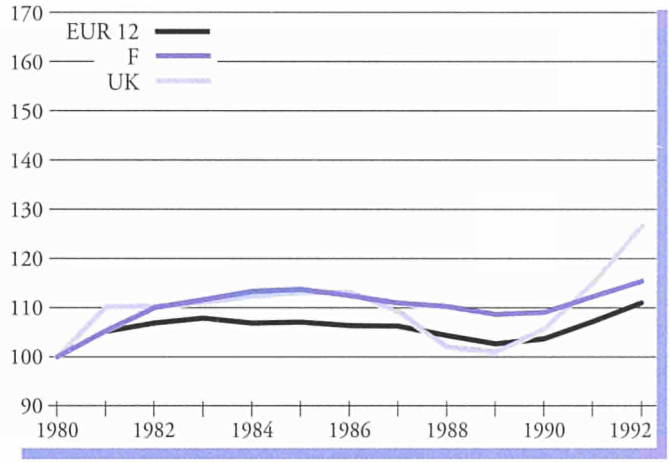
As a percentage of GDP, social protection expenditure in the southern countries increased more than the EU average.

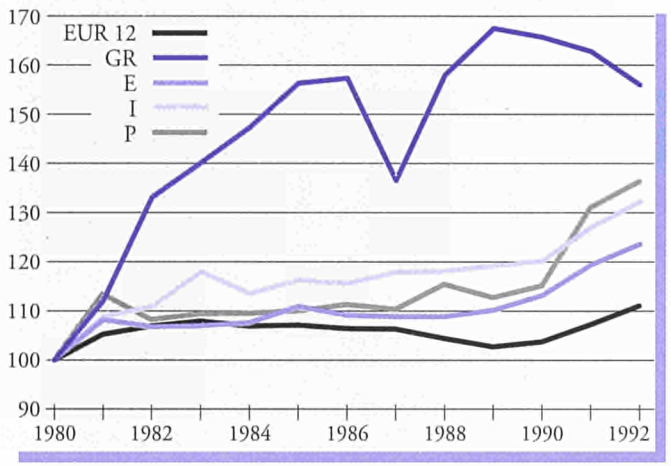
Between 1980 and 1992 in Spain, Greece, Italy and Portugal, social protection expenditure as a percentage of GDP rose by 30.7%, whereas the average rate of growth for the European Union was 11.1%.

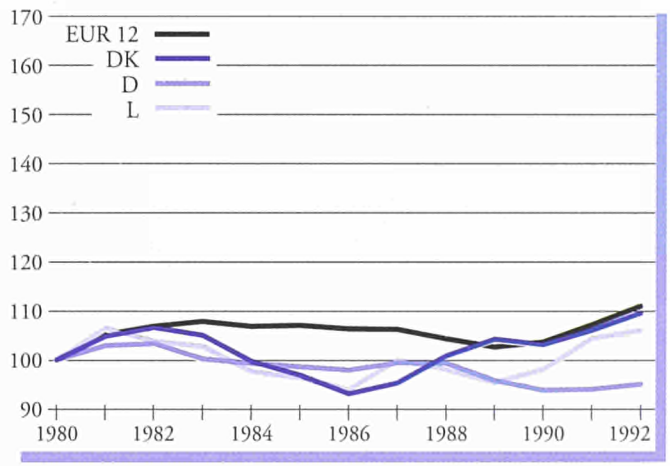
This was due to the effort made by these countries to make up the leeway on social benefits *vis-à-vis* other Member States. In Germany, social protection expenditure as a percentage of GDP fell almost every year between 1980 and 1992.

Indices of social protection expenditure as a percentage of GDP (1980 = 100)





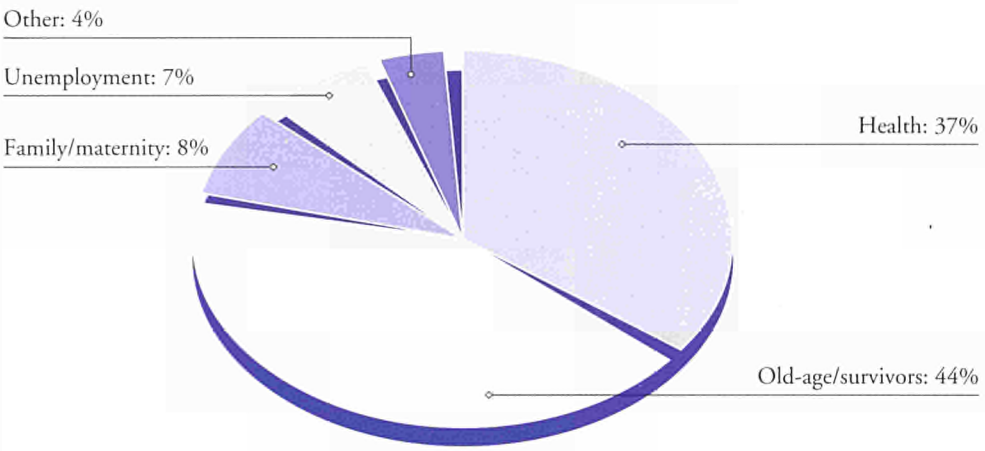




In the European Union more than 80% of social protection expenditure goes on the old-age/survivors and health functions.

In most of the Member States old-age/survivor benefits predominate. Only in Ireland, Portugal and the Netherlands are the health function benefits predominant. In Germany, expenditure on the old-age/survivors function is more or less equal to that on the health function. On average, for the European Union, old-age/survivors' benefits and sickness benefits account for 44.8 and 36.6% respectively of total social protection benefits.

Social protection benefits by group of functions, 1992 (EUR 12)



The ratios between these various social protection functions vary appreciably from one Member State to another, reflecting mainly institutional and structural differences.

The proportion of expenditure on the other social protection functions, for the European Union as a whole, are 7.8% for the family/maternity function, 7.2% for unemployment (including expenditure on job-creation) and 3.6% for the remaining functions, mainly housing and poverty.

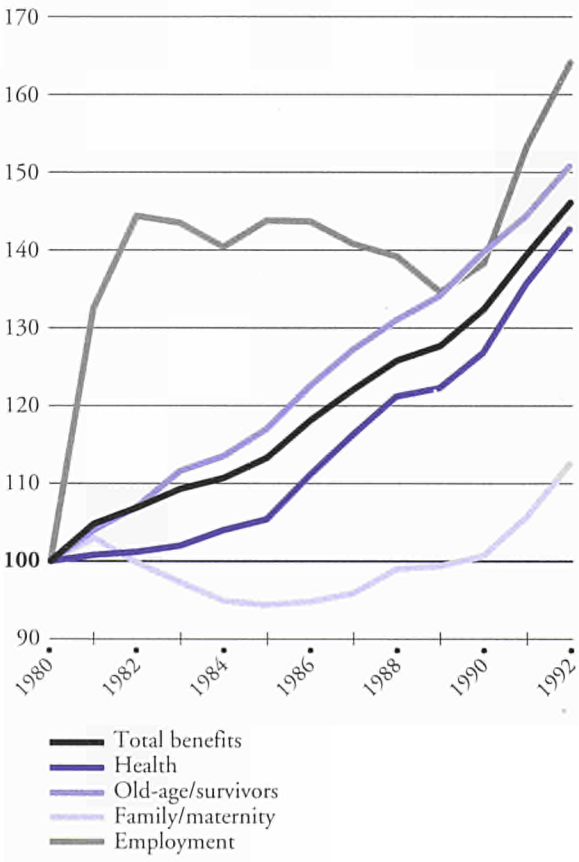
Luxembourg spends very little on job-creation because of its low rate of unemployment. On the other hand, the reason why Spain spends very little on the family/maternity function is not that there are few children, but because it has frozen family allowances.

In the European Union as a whole, the proportion of expenditure on old-age/survivors has increased.

It rose from 43.4% of total social protection expenditure in 1980 to 44.8% in 1992.

This is because of the ageing population and more generous pensions. The health functions account for a slightly smaller proportion, falling from 37.5% in 1980 to 36.6% in 1992. Over the same period expenditure on the family/maternity functions fell to a greater extent, from 10.5 to 7.8%. The proportion of expenditure on unemployment functions (including expenditure on job-creation) increased from 6.4% in 1980 to 7.2% in 1992.

Real growth of social-protection benefits by group of functions, EUR 12
(1980 = 100)



At national level, there were some major changes in the relative proportions of benefits between 1980 and 1992.

In Denmark, health expenditure fell from 35.8 to 28.5% of total expenditure, while expenditure on unemployment/job-creation increased from 12.9 to 17.2%. In Greece, expenditure on old-age/survivors increased from 61.9 to 69.0%. In Ireland, expenditure on family/maternity rose from 15.1 to 17.4%, while expenditure on unemployment and job-creation almost doubled, rising from 7.8 to 14.6%. In Italy, expenditure on old-age/survivors increased from 55.1 to 62.8% and in Luxembourg expenditure on family/maternity rose from 10.0 to 11.1%.

Social protection benefits by group of functions, 1980 and 1992 (percentage of total expenditure)

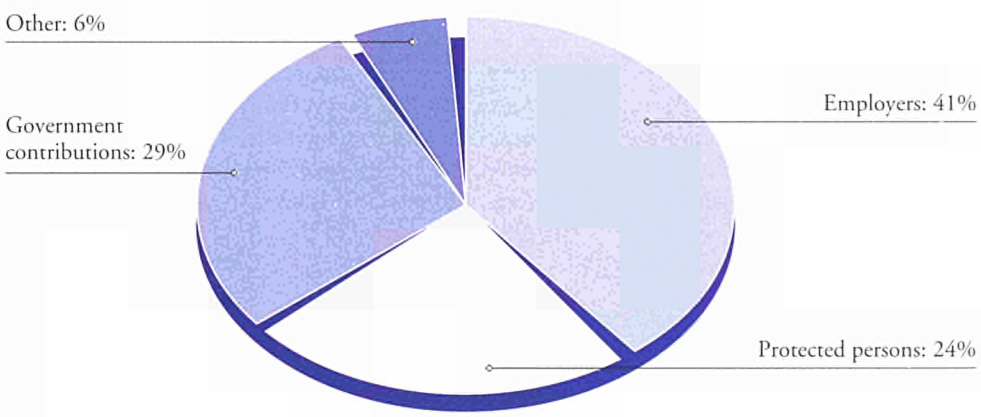
	Health	Old age/ survivors	Family/ maternity	Unemployment	Other
EUR 12	37.5	43.4	10.5	6.4	2.2
	36.6	44.8	7.8	7.2	3.6
B	34.6	41.5	11.3	11.6	0.9
	34.4	44.7	8.1	11.4	1.4
DK	35.8	35.7	10.8	12.9	4.8
	28.5	35.1	12.0	17.2	7.2
D	40.5	42.7	9.9	4.5	2.5
	41.0	40.6	8.9	6.2	3.3
GR	26.0	61.9	4.5	2.5	5.1
	18.7	69.0	1.7	5.3	5.3
E	36.9	40.8	4.4	16.2	1.8
	36.6	41.3	1.8	18.5	1.9
F	35.6	43.9	12.7	5.1	2.7
	34.6	44.1	9.5	7.7	4.1
IRL	42.5	29.7	15.1	7.8	4.9
	36.0	27.2	17.4	14.6	4.8
I	34.9	55.1	7.5	2.3	0.1
	31.6	62.8	3.9	1.7	0.0
L	40.4	47.5	10.0	0.9	1.2
	39.3	48.4	11.1	0.8	0.4
NL	47.8	32.9	9.2	6.1	3.9
	45.2	36.9	5.4	8.4	4.2
P	44.8	39.4	8.0	2.8	5.0
	45.4	38.8	5.6	5.0	5.2
UK	32.9	42.8	13.1	9.6	1.6
	36.4	39.4	10.9	6.0	7.4

1980
1992

Employers' social security contributions are the main source of finance for social protection.

In the Union countries, the proportion of social protection financed by employers' social security contributions in 1992 was 40.5% of the total, while contributions from government authorities, social security contributions from protected persons and other current receipts accounted for 29.2, 24.2 and 6.1% respectively of the finance.

Current social protection receipts by type, 1992



Over the whole period 1980-92 the proportion of social security contributions paid by employers fell in all Member States.

In the European Union as a whole, it fell from 45.4% in 1980 to 40.5% in 1992.

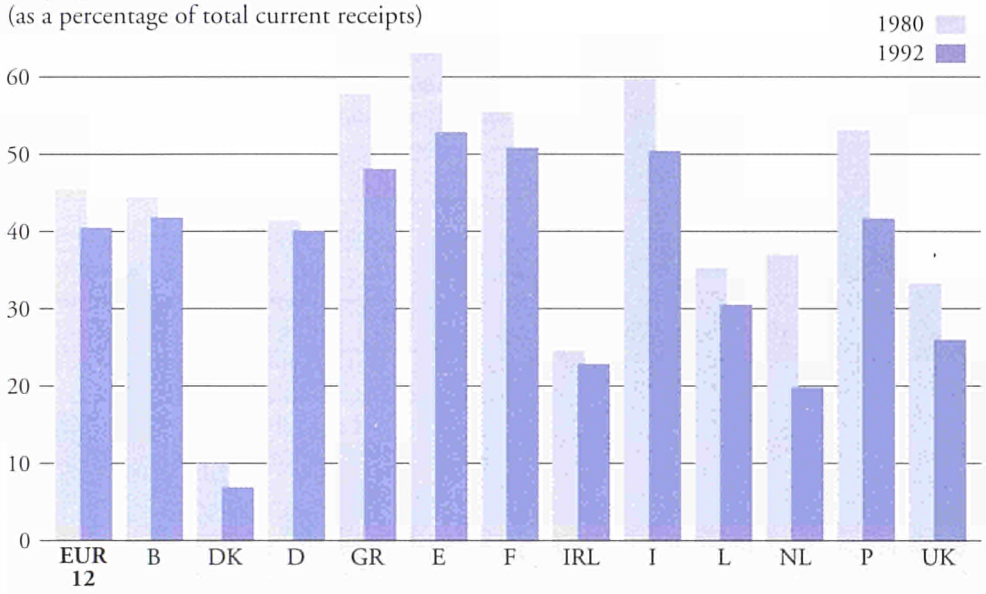
The proportions for the other sources of finance increased. Thus, over the same period, social security contributions from protected persons increased by 2.2 points, other receipts by 1.4 points and contributions from government by 1.3 points.

The financing systems reflect institutional differences between the Member States.

The Danish system is an extreme case, with 81.6% of the contributions coming from the government and only 6.9% from the employers. (Government contributions to social protection are financed to a large extent by taxes on current earned income).

Employers' contributions represent more than half of current social protection receipts in Italy and Spain. Only in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, where the pension schemes have very substantial funds, are 'other current receipts' a significant source of finance (i.e. 15.8 and 15.2% of all receipts respectively).

Employers' contributions, 1980 and 1992
(as a percentage of total current receipts)



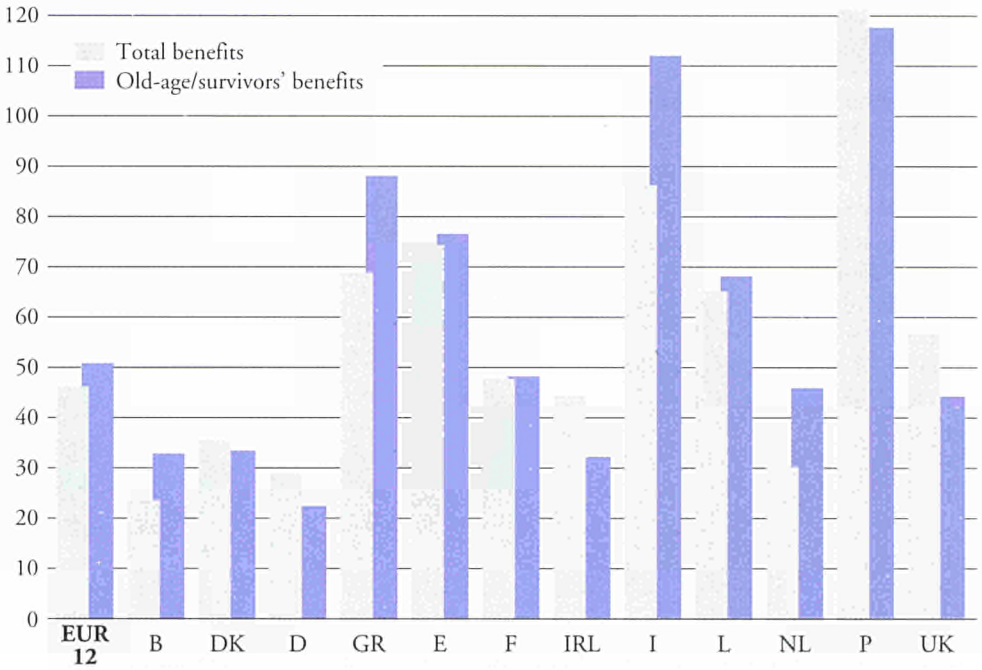
Current social protection receipts by type, 1980 and 1992 (percentage of total current receipts)

1980
1992

	Employers' contributions	Protected persons' contributions	Government contributions	Other
EUR 12	45.4	22.0	27.9	4.7
	40.5	24.2	29.2	6.1
B	44.5	17.8	34.0	3.8
	41.8	26.7	21.6	9.9
DK	10.0	2.3	82.9	4.7
	6.9	5.1	81.6	6.3
D	41.4	28.0	27.0	3.5
	40.1	29.8	26.3	3.7
GR	57.8	31.2	4.7	6.2
	48.1	27.4	15.7	8.8
E	63.2	19.2	16.1	1.5
	52.9	17.3	27.8	2.1
F	55.5	24.3	17.3	2.9
	50.9	28.8	17.7	2.5
IRL	24.6	11.2	63.3	1.0
	22.9	15.2	60.6	1.3
I	59.9	13.9	23.8	2.4
	50.5	15.9	30.6	3.0
L	35.4	23.4	32.8	8.4
	30.6	21.8	40.5	7.2
NL	37.1	31.0	20.4	11.5
	19.9	41.7	22.6	15.8
P	53.2	18.7	25.4	2.7
	41.8	20.8	32.4	5.0
UK	33.4	14.6	43.2	8.7
	26.1	15.8	42.8	15.2

The old-age and survivors functions are analysed together because they are closely linked in the national pension schemes. Pensions (retirement, including early retirement and bridging pensions, and dependent widows' and orphans' pensions) are the major type of benefit out of all expenditure on these functions (90% under the old-age and 97% under the survivors function), even when other cash benefits (lump sums in particular) and some benefits in kind (various reductions, housing, etc.) are also taken into account.

Increase in total benefits and old-age/survivors benefits in real terms between 1980 and 1992 (%)



The old-age/survivors functions account for 45% of total social protection expenditure.

Between 1980 and 1992 expenditure on old-age/survivors' benefits increased in real terms by 50.8%, whereas total social protection benefits increased by only 46.1%.

The pattern was similar in Belgium, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands and Luxembourg particularly. On the other hand, in Germany, Ireland and the United Kingdom the increase in real terms in old-age/survivors' benefits was much less than that in total benefits.

The marked increase in expenditure on old-age benefits is due to the rise in the number of people qualifying as the population ages. This, together with the increase in life expectancy, means that the increase in expenditure on old-age benefits can be expected to continue.

The average expenditure per person aged 65 years or over can be taken as an indicator of the generosity of the systems in the various countries.

On the basis of this indicator the countries can be divided into three groups, those with the most generous protection (Luxembourg and Italy), those with the poorest protection (Portugal, Ireland, Greece and Spain) and those between these two extremes.

Average amount of benefits per person aged 65 years or over

(as % of per capita GDP)

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
1980	76.1	77.0	69.6	76.7	77.2	66.4	75.1	55.2	90.7	88.5	83.8	40.5	59.4
1992	76.9	78.0	69.1	64.6	87.5	64.5	85.5	49.1	100.8	97.2	90.4	46.3	65.3

The organization and functioning of retirement schemes in the EU vary considerably.

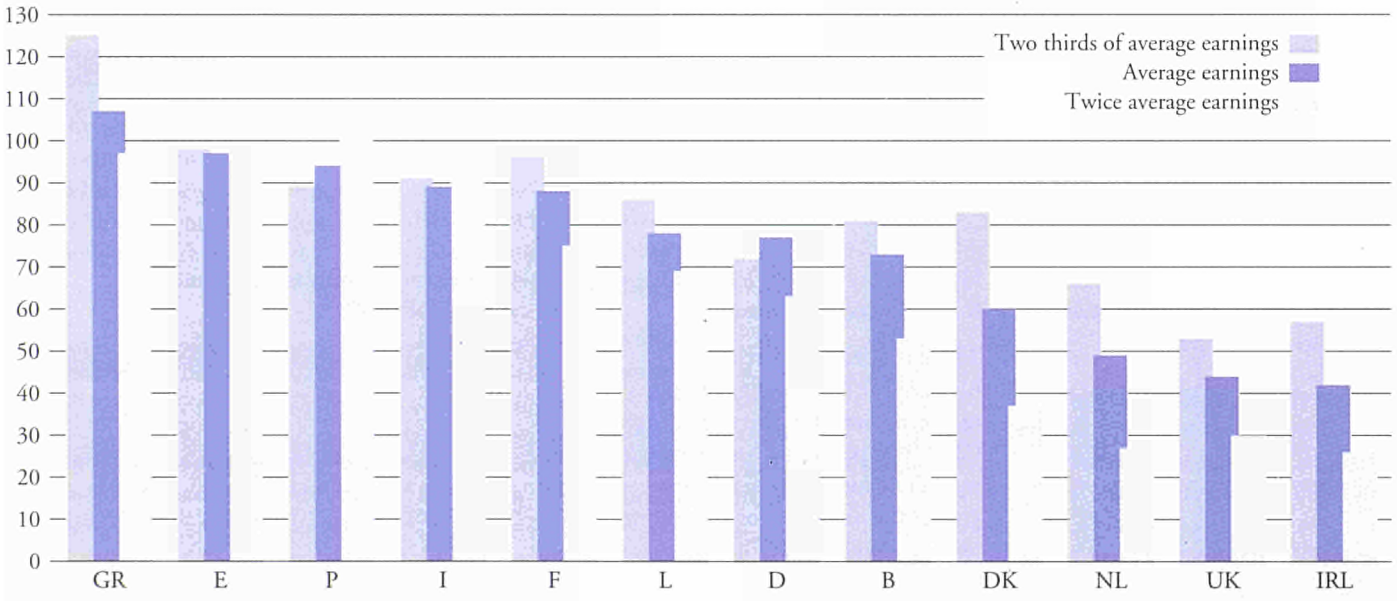
Differences are most marked in the statutory age of retirement, the calculation and level of the amount to be paid and the methods of managing and financing benefits. A useful indicator for measuring the level of protection provided for pensioners is the level of net replacement. This indicator is highest in the four southern countries of Europe, where the benefit is equal to 80% or more of the lowest reference earnings.

The lowest replacement rates occur in the countries where government pensions are paid at uniform rates irrespective of earnings levels. This is the system in Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom.

However, caution is required when interpreting this indicator. For Greece, Portugal and Spain, the pension is calculated on a much lower average earnings value than in the rest of the European Union. Furthermore, account is taken only of compulsory pension schemes, although voluntary pension schemes often complement the basic scheme in countries with a lower replacement rate.

The ***net replacement rate*** is the ratio between the pension at the time when the benefit begins and final earnings. It is calculated here on the basis of the average earnings of a manual worker in manufacturing industry at the end of his working life, with no spouse.

Net replacement rate, 1990[1] (as a percentage of net earnings)



[1] Full career, without spouse.

The active population must meet the rising cost of social protection in respect of the old-age/survivors function.

The ageing of the population, together with slow economic growth, raises the question of whether the schemes will have the capacity to meet their future financial obligations.

Expenditure on old-age/survivors' benefits per active person, EUR 12

(annual amount in ECUs constant at 1985 values)

1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
2 878.9	2 930.3	2 981.7	3 071.3	3 157.1	3 303.7

Over the past few years private supplementary schemes have been developed to meet difficulties in financing pensions.

The various financing systems are often combined in some new way, with very different regulations. In 1988 supplementary schemes already accounted for a substantial proportion of total old-age/survivors' benefits in the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and France.

At the same time, it seems that the government schemes will be forced to discontinue certain policies, such as encouraging early retirement of older workers. This kind of measure had been advanced during the 1970s and 1980s to try to solve the unemployment problem. More recently, a number of countries, in particular Germany, Italy, Greece, France and the United Kingdom, have applied or contemplated reforms to their pensions systems with a view to raising the age of retirement, making conditions for eligibility more stringent and reducing the real value of future payments.

Pension schemes can be financed in various ways, involving varying degrees of solidarity. A distinction can be made between the three pillars mentioned below.

The first is based fundamentally on the concept of solidarity and is financed by the social security authorities or from government resources. The second consists mainly of communal supplementary schemes organized by an undertaking or persons in social or professional associations. These may be based on a system of allocation (e.g. in France), or the principle of capitalization (e.g. in the United Kingdom). Lastly, the third, which is not taken into account in the European system of integrated social protection statistics (Esspros), is based on savings or individual insurance schemes.

Supplementary pensions, 1988

(as a percentage of total old-age/survivors' benefits)

EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
13.41	4.26	16.29	9.49	9.55	0.97	20.70	17.72	1.45	0.20	33.67	0.02	26.65

The sickness function accounts on average for 25% of total social protection expenditure.

At Community level this represented ECU 968 per capita in 1991. In five Member States the level exceeded this average. In Germany the level was 50% above the Community average. In France and Luxembourg it was 25% higher. In the southern countries, i.e. Greece, Portugal and Spain, health expenditure was much lower. In the case of Greece this was for methodological reasons.

There is a certain correlation between the wealth of a country, measured here in terms of per capita GDP, and per capita health expenditure. The higher the GDP, the greater the tendency for the country to have a high level of health expenditure.

The sickness function forms part of the health group of functions, which comprises, in addition, the invalidity/disability function and the occupational accidents/diseases function.

As in the case of the other social protection functions, both the cash benefits (e.g. allowances paid by the social security scheme during sick leave) and benefits in kind (i.e. health care) are considered here.

Expenditure on sickness benefits and per capita GDP, 1991

(ECU)

	GDP	Health expenditure
D	21 547	1 486
L	19 505	1 206
F	17 007	1 204
DK	20 444	1 167
NL	15 560	1 036
EUR 12	15 762	968
I	16 392	937
B [1]	15 167	878
UK	14 112	721
E	10 935	592
IRL	10 262	550
P	6 423	283
GR[1]	5 190	104

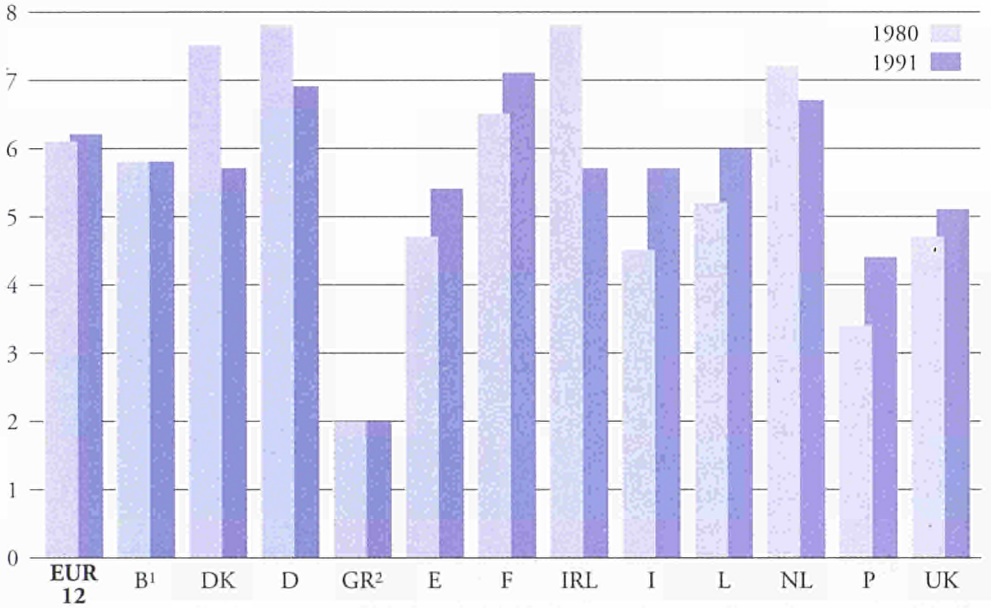
[1] 1990 data.

Between 1980 and 1991 the proportion of GDP allocated to the sickness function fell in Denmark, Germany, Ireland and the Netherlands.

The main reason for these reductions was the effect of policies to contain health expenditure. In Ireland, the growth in GDP was very substantial over this period (by 196% at current prices). This factor is responsible to some extent for the reduction in the ratio of health expenditure to GDP. This proportion was stable in Belgium and Greece.

On the other hand, the proportion of GDP allocated to health expenditure grew in the other countries. This is hardly surprising as regards Spain, Italy, Portugal and the United Kingdom, in view of the low initial level of health expenditure. In spite of their efforts, France and Luxembourg did not manage to restrict the growth of health expenditure, which continued to rise not only in absolute terms but also as a proportion of national wealth.

Expenditure on sickness benefits, 1980 and 1991 (as a percentage of GDP)



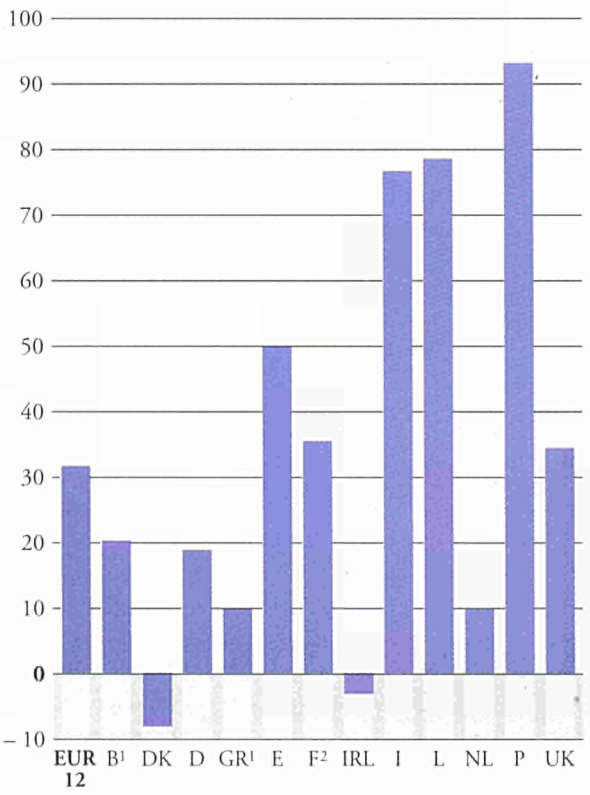
1 1990 data.
2 1981 data.

Growth in health expenditure, in relative terms, was moderate over the period 1980-91.

Discounting general inflation (i.e. once expenditure has been deflated by the general consumer price index), the increase in social protection expenditure related to the health function (in ECU 1985 = 100) was greater in Spain, Italy, Luxembourg and Portugal, but substantially less in the other countries. In Denmark it was a minus quantity and almost nil in Ireland. These variations in relative prices can be attributed to the 'price' effects of sickness-related benefits (since movements in the price of benefits can differ from the general consumer price index) or to 'volume' effects of these benefits.

In particular, as regards benefits in kind, it must be emphasized that only social protection expenditure is taken into account, and the financial contribution of households to their health care is not taken into account. During the 1980s, most governments tried to limit their health expenditure by shifting part of the cost to the household budget, for example, by increasing the proportion of the cost borne by the consumer. This means that total expenditure (comprising expenditure borne by the beneficiaries, either directly or through private insurance schemes) certainly grew to a greater extent than the data presented here reveal.

Relative variations in sickness benefit expenditure, 1980-91 (ECU at constant values, 1985)



1 1990 data.
2 1981 data.

Total unemployment benefits grew in real terms by 24.7% between 1989 and 1992.

This growth reflects a reverse of the trend over the period 1984-89, when there was a fall of 14.2%.

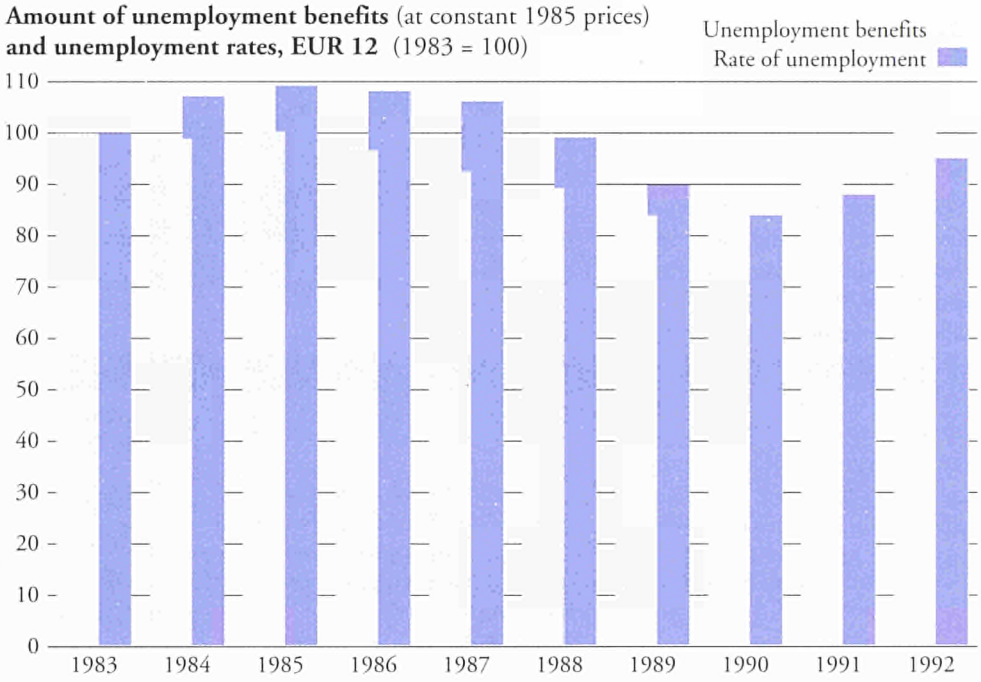
Between 1989 and 1992 expenditure on unemployment benefits increased more quickly than the rate of unemployment. The average benefit payments per unemployed person grew, in real terms, in all countries except Denmark. Over these four years, total expenditure per unemployed person more than doubled in Portugal and increased by almost 48% in Luxembourg.

Real growth rates for unemployment benefits
(at constant 1985 prices) *(%)*

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR(1)	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
1980-84	51.7	23.6	32.3	92.8	149.0	18.4	65.7	96.6	93.5	75.0	126.6	– 17.5	20.9
1984-89	– 14.2	– 10.1	– 6.2	– 2.4	38.1	22.7	19.1	– 0.6	– 40.1	– 24.3	– 20.5	31.9	– 59.8
1989-92	24.7	19.5	21.9	0.5	86.6	44.9	30.7	33.5	19.2	64.4	1.9	146.3	59.3
1990-92	61.4	32.8	51.2	89.2	375.5	102.6	158.0	160.9	38.2	118.0	79.6	168.5	– 22.6

(1) 1991 data.

Amount of unemployment benefits (at constant 1985 prices) **and unemployment rates, EUR 12** (1983 = 100)



Account is taken here of all forms of cash benefits paid to unemployed persons. As well as unemployment insurance and assistance, it includes redundancy payments and special assistance to various groups of workers in cases of interruption or temporary reduction of activity.

The development of expenditure on unemployment benefits can be attributed to certain factors, such as the composition of unemployment, and the cover or the generosity of the protection system.

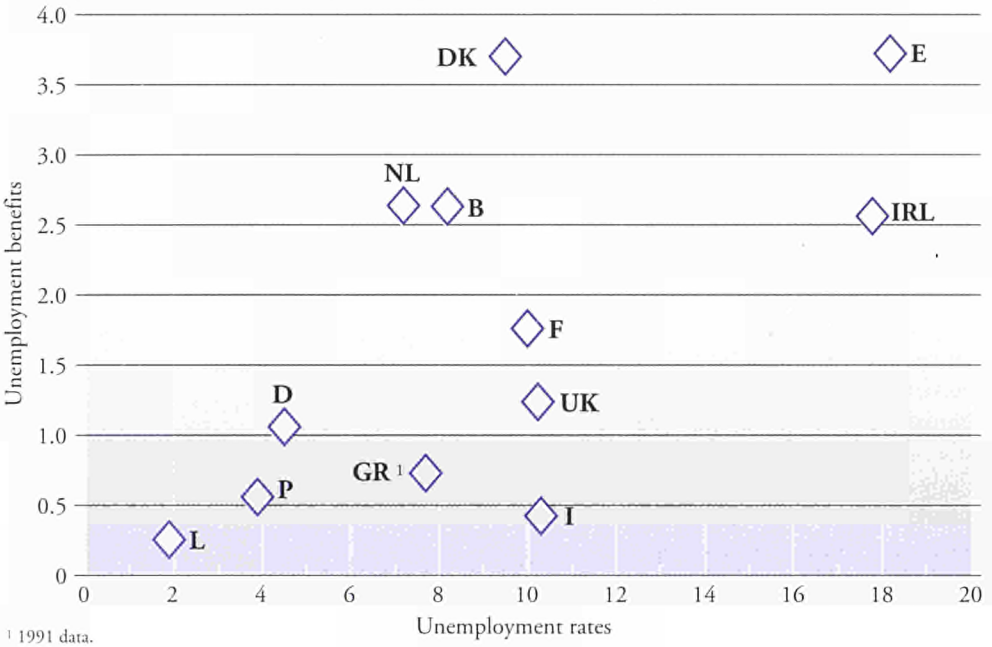
In the 1980s, certain categories, such as young people, married women and the long-term unemployed (who, in some cases, received lower rates of benefits) formed an ever-increasing proportion of the total number of job-seekers. On the other hand, over the past few years, the proportion of categories of persons for whom unemployment benefits are more onerous has increased, substantially affecting the related social-protection expenditure.

In addition, in countries where payment systems are less developed, such as Portugal and Greece, the effective cover of unemployment insurance improved, and the benefits became more generous in terms of both higher income replacement rates and longer payment periods.

The level of unemployment expenditure is not always due to the unemployment rate.

In Denmark, the Netherlands and Belgium this expenditure is very high (3.7, 2.7 and 2.6% of GDP respectively), whereas the unemployment rate is close to the average for the European Union, i.e. 9.4% of the active population. On the other hand, Italy allocates less than 0.5% of its GDP to unemployment benefits, while it has an unemployment rate above the European average.

Unemployment benefits (as a percentage of GDP) **and unemployment rates, 1992**



[1] 1991 data.

Expenditure per unemployed person (expressed as a percentage of GDP) is highest in Denmark, the Netherlands and Belgium.

It is lowest in Italy, where general insurance against unemployment replaces only 25% of final earnings. Apart from this unemployment insurance, a special fund (the CIG) has been set up to compensate industrial workers who have been made redundant for economic reasons. Employers and the State share the funding of this scheme. Only data on State expenditure are included here.

Expenditure per unemployed person is also well below the average in Greece, Portugal and the United Kingdom.

Several countries have recently brought in more restrictive conditions of eligibility or have reduced the amount or period of unemployment benefit.

In some cases, for example in Denmark, the restrictions are accompanied by measures to reinforce the existing link between unemployment benefit and employment incentives. As the number of these provisions grows, employment benefit becomes an instrument to help the unemployed person to adapt to changes in the labour market, acquire new qualifications and prepare for a new job.

Average level of benefits per unemployed person, 1992

(as a percentage of GDP per capita)

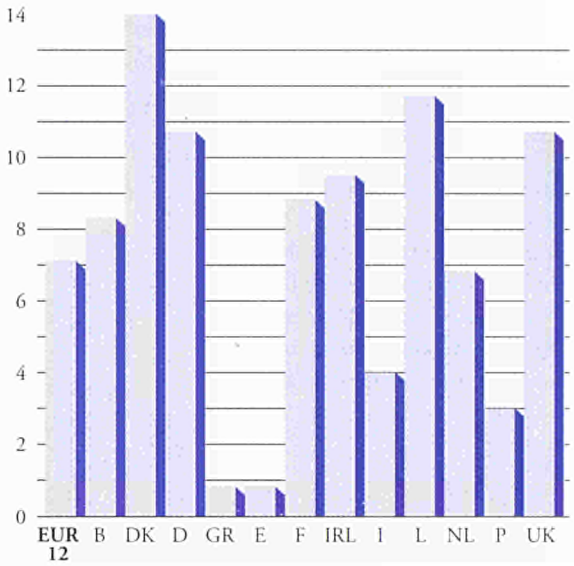
EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR (1)	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
35.4	79.3	68.9	45.9	23.1	53.5	42.1	37.0	9.4	22.9	80.6	27.2	24.0

[1] 1991 data.

In 1992 the amount for family allowances was substantially lower in the southern countries.

These allowances are paid to households for the children's education and to support other members of the family. In 1992, Ireland and Denmark allocated the highest level of funds for family support (3.1% of GDP), followed by Luxembourg and the United Kingdom. In contrast, in Greece and Spain family allowances amounted to only approximately 0.2% of GDP. The indicator relating expenditure on family allowances per child aged under 19 years to per capita GDP can be used to assess the level of a State's commitment to family support policy, taking into account changes in the number of recipients and the wealth of the country. In the countries of southern Europe, family allowances are much lower than in the other Member States. In Denmark, Germany, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom, the average level of family allowances per child aged 19 or under was equal to over 10% of per capita GDP in 1992, whereas in Greece and Spain it was under 1%.

Average level of allowances per child aged 19 or under, 1992 (as a percentage of GDP per capita)



Number of children aged 19 or under per 1 000 inhabitants and benefits under the family function, 1992

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Number of children under 19 years of age per 1 000 inhabitants	218.5	217.5	210.1	185.7	222.7	237.4	239.9	320.2	200.8	207.3	219.3	246.2	227.7
Family benefits (as a percentage of GDP)	1.7	1.9	3.1	2.0	0.2	0.2	2.2	3.1	0.8	2.6	1.6	0.8	2.6

Family allowances are central to family support schemes.

In eight countries, the allowance is universal. In the four others (Belgium, Greece, Spain and Portugal) allowances depend on the nature of the head of household's job, but all families are covered (except for members of the professions in Spain).

In Germany, Greece, Italy and Portugal the level of the allowance depends on the household income and in Italy and Spain entitlement to the allowance ceases when the income is above a certain threshold. The allowances paid for one child are particularly high in Denmark, Belgium and the United Kingdom, whereas in France a family with only one child has no right to family allowances. For families with three children, family allowances are highest in Belgium and Luxembourg.

Apart from family allowances, there are other forms of family support both in kind and in cash. Most countries grant benefits to support families more selectively according to sociological criteria (e.g. lone, sick or elderly parents) or for economic reasons (e.g. low-income families). In Denmark, benefits in kind, such as child care (e.g. crèches, nurseries, etc.) and help at home are very common forms of aid.

Amount of family allowances (per month) **for one, two and three children, 1992** *(ECU)*

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
1 child	58	81	34	3.7	23	–	21	40	48	56	19	59
2 children	166	162	97	13	46	92	42	71	147	123	38	107
3 children	327	243	204	28	69	301	63	118	324	194	57	155

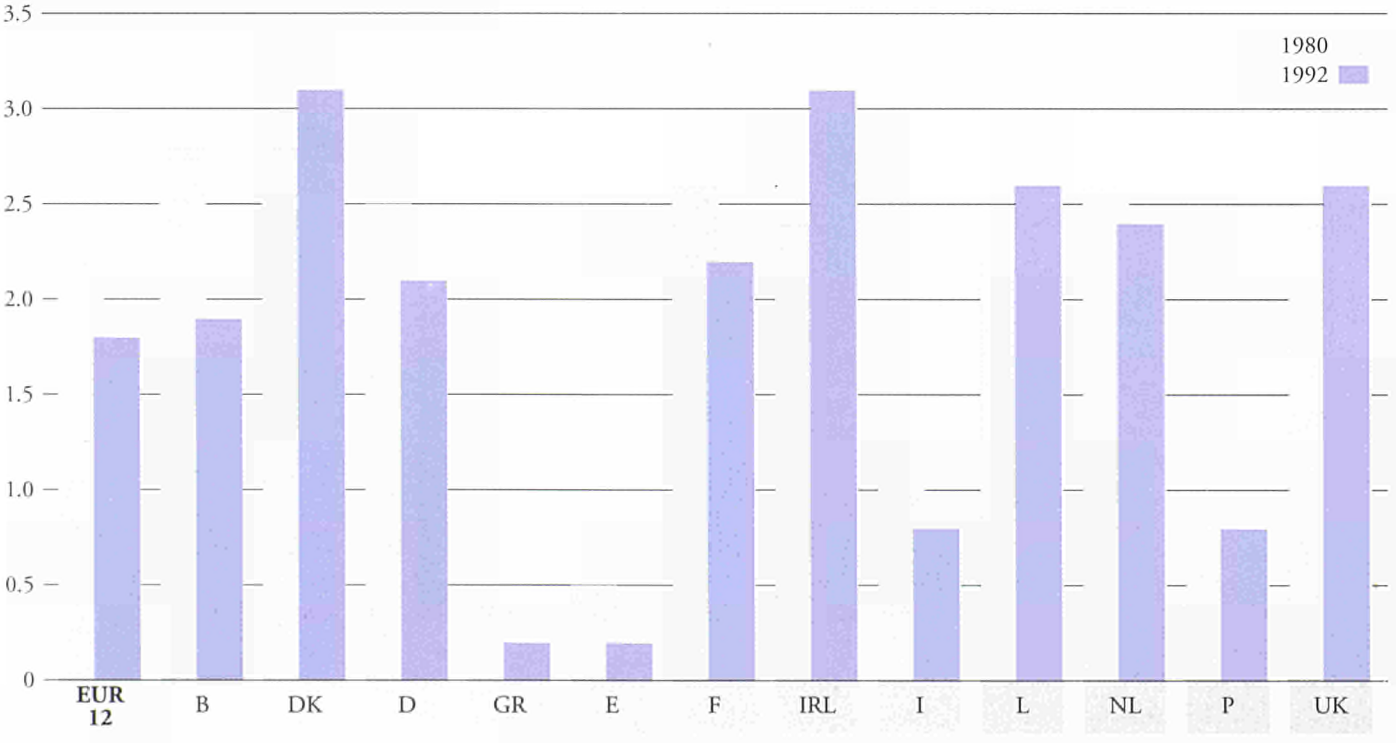
NB: Denmark, Germany, Greece and Portugal: maximum amounts paid.
Italy: the amounts given are those for the income bracket of LIT 2.1 to LIT 2.4 million a year.

The level of family allowances fell in most Member States between 1980 and 1992.

In the European Union, these benefits fell from 2.2 to 1.8% of GDP over this period. Only in Denmark, Ireland, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom did these variations increase more rapidly than GDP. Various factors lay behind this, in particular the drop in the birth rate in all Member States, certain amendments to legislation, the introduction in some countries of new benefits supplementary to family allowances, and the differing rates of adjustment to the cost of living.

Two cases are particularly representative, Spain and Ireland. In Spain, the percentage of GDP allocated to family benefits, which was already low in 1980, was reduced still further because of the drop in the number of children and the fact that no adjustment was made to the amount paid per child. In Ireland, on the other hand, the increase in these benefits as a percentage of GDP, despite a slight drop in the number of beneficiaries, is due to a substantial increase in the benefit paid per child and a substantial increase in the supplementary benefits for dependants. In addition, the composition of the benefits has also changed. Means-tested benefits have increased substantially in the European Union (by 55% between 1980 and 1992), whereas basic allowances have fallen by 6%. These changes show the priority given by governments to benefits paid to the least privileged families, while at the same time trying to curb the increase in expenditure on social protection.

Family allowances (as a percentage of GDP)



Social assistance benefits not linked to particular risks can be granted in most of the Member States.

In the northern European countries each person without resources is entitled to assistance under a national scheme. In southern Europe, the citizen depends entirely on various non-profit institutions or local authorities, which pay discretionary amounts of benefit. In these countries full information is not available, whereas for the former countries it is possible to have a fairly comprehensive view of the sums paid.

Luxembourg gives the highest levels of guaranteed minimum income. Nevertheless, total expenditure as a percentage of GDP and per capita are highest in the United Kingdom and Denmark (1.3% of GDP and 197 PPS per capita in the United Kingdom and 0.9% of GDP and 144 PPS per capita in Denmark).

Means-tested ***social security benefit*** is given on an individual basis to people whose financial resources are insufficient to meet their basic requirements. This kind of benefit is known as 'revenu minimum d'insertion' (RMI) (= minimum integration income) in France, 'income support' in the United Kingdom and 'minimex' in Belgium.

Minimum guaranteed income per month, 1992

(ECU

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
For a single person	450	372	241-275	–	:	316	302	188-313	649	533	–	249
For a couple	600	745	433-494	–	226	474	497	251-439	872	761	–	391

NB: There are variations depending on the region. The figures for Germany, Spain and Italy are given only as examples.

Recommendation 92/441/EEC of 24 June 1992 lays down common criteria regarding resources and adequate benefits in social protection systems. In particular, it recommends that the Member States should:

recognize the fundamental right of a person to adequate resources and benefits for living in keeping with human dignity;

lay down, for various types and sizes of households, the amount of resources estimated to be adequate for covering their needs, adjusting them or supplementing them to meet specific needs;

give financial assistance to persons whose resources fall below these minima.

Financing social protection, 1991

	Austria	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden
Current social protection expenditure (as a percentage of GDP at market prices)	27.3	31.1	18.0	29.5	37.6
per capita social protection expenditure (annual averages, ECU)	4 649	6 078.2	3 663.4	5 930.5	8 330.0
Social protection benefits by function, 1991					*(million ECU)*
Sickness	:	7 337	463	6 739	:
Invalidity/disability	:	4 096	79	3 016	[2]
Occupational accident/disease	:	537	5	[1]	1 635
Old age	:	9 043	188	8 614	28 742
Survivors	:	1 155	26	389	0
Maternity	:	754	16	394	2 400
Family	:	3 167	117	2 398	9 236
Placement, vocational guidance, resettlement	:	1 033	1	0	0
Unemployment	:	1 647	19	1 843	4 835
Housing	:	256	:	35	0
Miscellaneous	:	595	13	1 281	478
Total benefits	:	29 620	927	24 709	70 393
Current receipts by source sector					*(million ECU)*
Undertakings	:	13 584	271	7 006	:
Central government	:	10 793	554	7 697	:
Local government	:	5 266	60	6 032	:
Government social security authorities	:	1 616	2	86	:
Households	:	2 389	57	3 887	:
Private-sector organizations	:	0	0	0	:
Miscellaneous	:	0	0	0	:
Total current receipts [3]	:	32 032	945	24 709	:

[1] Included in the sickness function.
[2] Included in the old-age function.
[3] Excluding transfers between administrations.

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LIVING CONDITIONS

HEALTH

There has been a steady improvement in the general health of the population of the European Union over the past 30 years; overall mortality has declined. Admittedly, mortality rates are not the only measure of the state of health of a population, but they are at present one of the few data which are comparable between countries. Indeed, in important areas such as morbidity and risk factors, few comparable data exist at European level.

Mortality due to communicable diseases (with the exception of AIDS) has fallen sharply and the main causes of death are now cancer and cardiovascular diseases.

These are frequently linked to lifestyle, to smoking and eating habits.

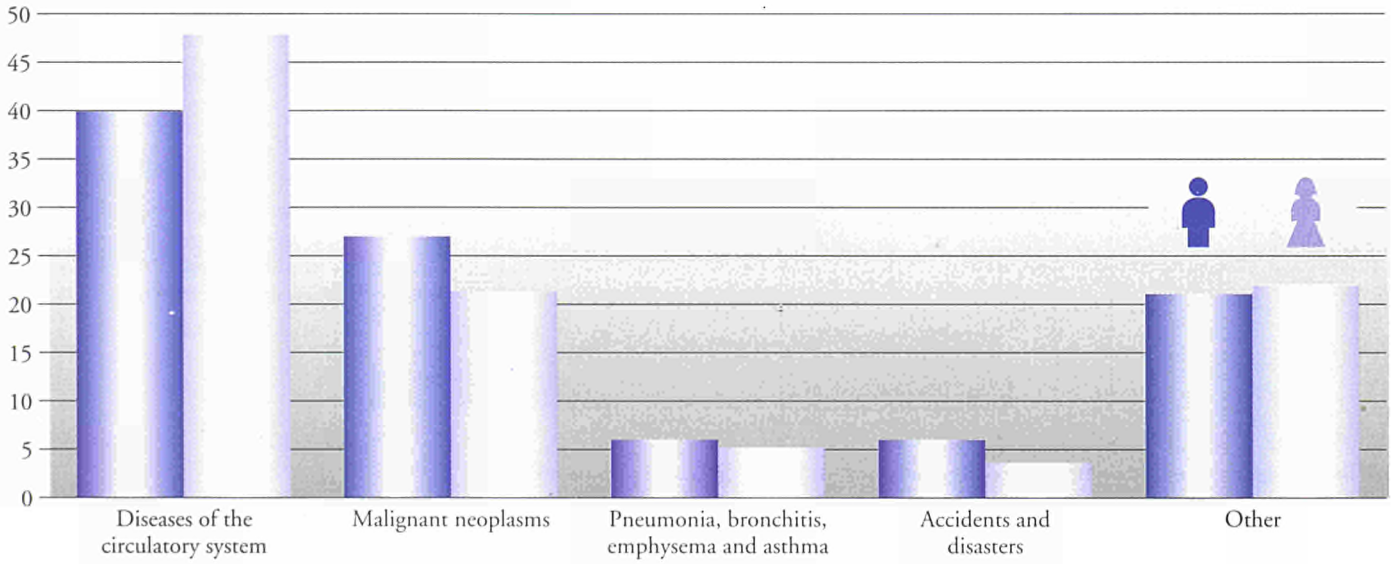
A survey has shown that, in 1992, one European in three over the age of 15 smoked. In 1990, one young person in 10 between 11 and 15 years' old had had a cigarette by the age of 11.

The number of cases of AIDS diagnosed in 1993 is estimated at 21 218, an increase of 11.6% compared with 1992.

It has been estimated that every year over 500 000 young Europeans are offered drugs before they are 15.

In the European Union, almost seven million people work in the health sector, a field which is becoming increasingly vast and complex.

Principal diseases, 1990, EUR 12 (% of deaths)

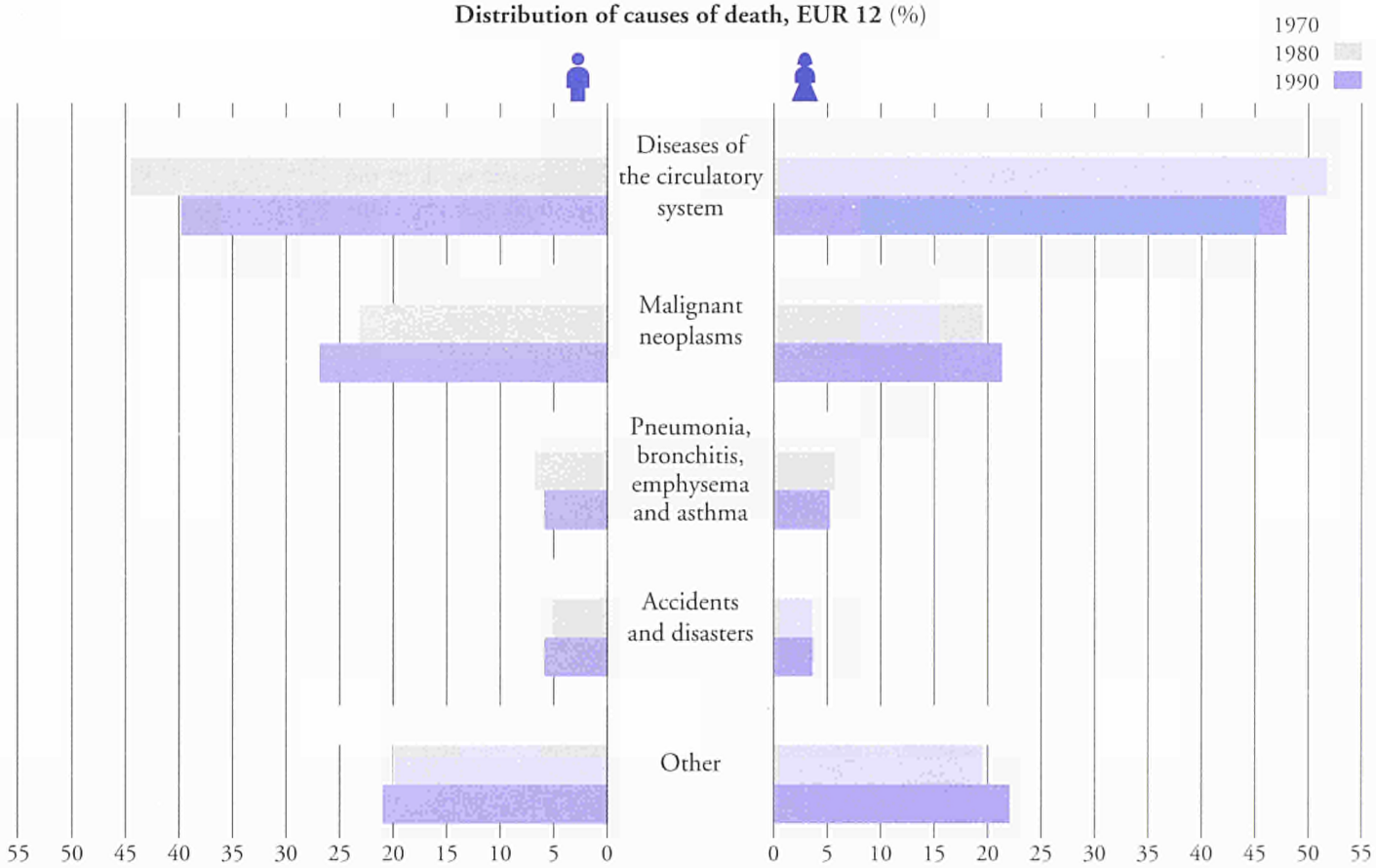


Progress in health care and prevention has led to a considerable increase in life expectancy at birth since 1950.

Some illnesses are still widespread, however. In 1990, the most common cause of death was diseases of the circulatory system, even though these have been accounting for a much lower relative share of deaths since the 1980s. Standardized rates for mortality due to these diseases are almost 400 for men and around 250 for women.

In contrast, cancer-induced deaths have shown a steady increase. In 1990, cancers caused 27% of male deaths and 21.3% of female, claiming an average of 202 victims per 100 000 inhabitants in the European Union.

Distribution of causes of death, EUR 12 (%)



NB: Data for Belgium refer to 1988, not 1990, and some figures are provisional. For Italy and Spain, they refer to 1989.

The information shown here for mortality is based on a standard European population.

Since the 1970s, deaths due to diseases of the respiratory system have fallen slightly in relative terms (around 16 deaths per 100 000 inhabitants in 1990).

Accidents and disasters cause 6% of male deaths and 3.6% of female. The distribution was roughly the same in 1990 as in 1970: in 1990, some 22 men per 100 000 inhabitants were killed in road accidents as against around seven women.

In 1990, the standardized mortality rate for women was lower than for men for all causes of death except diabetes, where the difference was minimal: 15.28 female deaths per 100 000 inhabitants compared with 14.96 male.

Standardized rates by age: the mortality rate is affected by the age structure of the population. The age effect can be offset in part, at least, by the use of a standard population. The standardized rate is thus an adjusted gross rate which enables comparisons to be made between countries and between the two sexes. Here, the standard reference population is the structure by age in the 'region of Europe' as defined by the World Health Organization (WHO).

Standardized mortality rates by cause, 1990 (EUR 12)

(per 100 000 inhabitants)

	Total	Male	Female
All causes	771.22	1 011.64	595.32
Diseases of the circulatory system, of which:	315.99	398.65	254.75
ischaemic heart diseases	123.32	178.47	82.65
cerebrovascular diseases	87.53	97.70	79.98
Malignant neoplasms, of which:	202.61	277.41	151.19
of the digestive system and peritoneum	64.10	86.16	47.86
of the trachea, bronchi and lungs	41.07	77.80	13.88
of the breast			31.69
Chronic bronchitis, emphysema and asthma	16.21	28.20	9.33
Chronic liver diseases and cirrhosis of the liver	16.20	23.93	9.80
Diabetes	15.34	14.96	15.28
Motor vehicle accidents on the public highway	14.10	21.82	6.84
Suicide	11.30	17.25	6.10

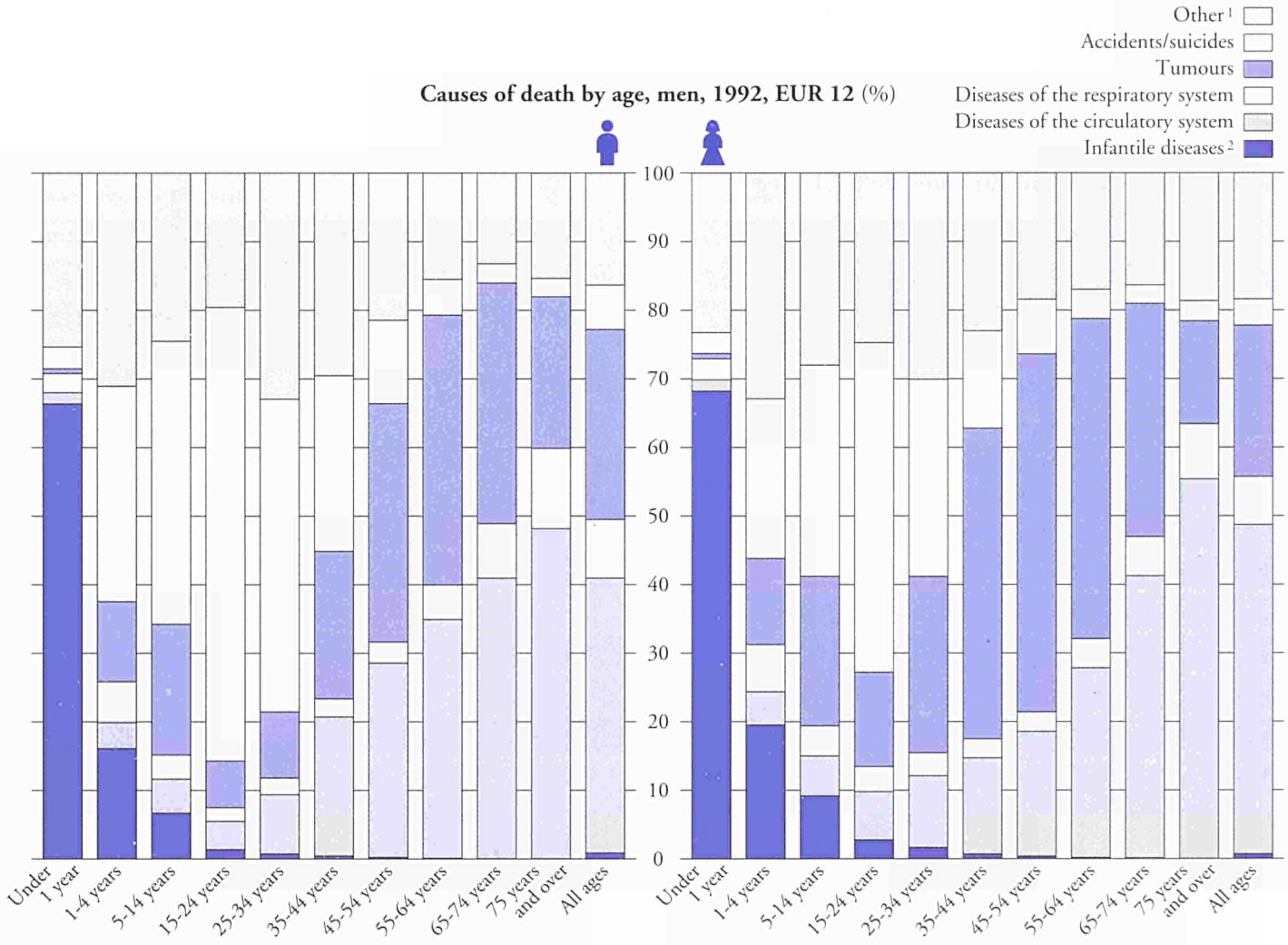
Source: WHO, Regional Office for Europe, 'Health for all' database.

Causes of death vary considerably, depending on age and sex.

The three main causes of infant mortality are perinatal disorders (including intrauterine hypoxia (deficiency of oxygen in the blood) and asphyxia of the newborn), congenital defects (in particular, of the heart and circulatory system) and symptoms and morbid states which are still ill-defined (including sudden death syndrome, or 'cot death'). Accidents (mostly road accidents) and tumours (in particular, leukaemia) account for over half of the deaths of children aged 5 to 14. Violent death (suicide and accidents) are the major cause of death among young men aged 15 to 24.

Mortality due to tumours increases with age, and is the cause of death of half of the women who die between 45 and 54. From 65 onwards, the main cause of death for both men and women is disorders of the circulatory system.

Causes of death by age, men, 1992, EUR 12 (%)



Source: Yearbook of world health statistics, 1993.

[1] 'Other' includes other ill-defined morbid states, infectious diseases and other causes.

[2] 'Infantile diseases' covers perinatal disorders and congenital defects.

Following a major increase during the 1950s, there has been a fall in the rate of mortality due to cardiovascular disorders since the start of the 1980s, except in Greece.

Recently, the figures have begun to stabilize in Denmark, however, and to rise again in Portugal.

At EU level, over half of deaths of cardiovascular origin are caused by ischaemic heart diseases (infarct). There are geographical differences, however: death is more frequently caused by ischaemic heart disease in Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom, whereas the rate of mortality due to cerebrovascular diseases is highest in Greece, Luxembourg and Portugal.

Diseases of the circulatory system include acute myocardial infarct and other ischaemic myocardiopathy, cerebrovascular diseases, arteriosclerosis and diseases of other parts of the circulatory system. Ischaemia is a local diminution in the blood supply.

Standardized mortality rates for diseases of the circulatory system, 1990

(per 100 000 inhabitants)

		B (1)	DK	D	GR	E (2)	F	IRL	I (3)	L	NL	P	UK
Cardiovascular diseases, of which	Male	399.1	472.8	472.6	420.4	340.1	267.3	547.2	384.0	454.1	391.0	485.7	468.9
	Female	256.3	280.3	297.6	321.9	250.6	159.3	318.6	253.4	306.5	317.1	346.7	281.1
Ischaemic heart diseases	Male	150.7	293.1	219.9	137.3	105.7	91.2	338.9	138.8	162.7	194.0	119.2	306.2
	Female	67.7	148.0	103.7	59.1	47.1	39.5	156.8	63.8	67.7	82.1	60.2	145.5
Cerebrovascular diseases	Male	81.5	81.8	98.4	131.1	101.8	65.5	100.0	109.8	136.9	75.1	248.5	92.7
	Female	71.2	65.6	77.7	133.2	86.3	48.0	79.6	84.1	117.3	61.5	193.6	84.0
Other	Male	166.9	97.9	154.3	152.0	132.6	110.6	108.3	135.4	154.5	121.9	118.0	51.6
	Female	117.4	66.7	116.2	129.6	117.2	71.8	82.2	105.5	121.5	73.5	92.9	51.6

Source: WHO Regional Office for Europe, 'Health for all' database.
[1] 1987 figures.
[2] 1989 figures.

Every year, there are over one million new cancer cases in Europe.

Cancer is the second most common cause of death: over 840 000 people (one in four) die from it every year. In most Member States, deaths from malignant tumours are still increasing — in almost all countries in the case of men and in six of the Twelve (Belgium, Denmark, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom) in the case of women.

The most widespread form of cancer in men is lung cancer, and for women breast cancer.

In 1990, the highest estimated incidence of cancer affecting men was for lung cancer, followed by cancers of the intestine and rectum and of the prostate gland. For women, the highest estimated incidence was for breast cancer, followed by cancer of the generative tract (ovaries, corpus uteri and cervix) and of the intestine and rectum.

The ***estimated incidence*** is the number of new cases of a disease in a healthy population over a given period. There are several methods of calculating this. The most reliable information is obtained from national registers recording all new cases. For countries which do not have such registers, the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) determines the incidence of cancer from mortality statistics. Standardization is carried out to enable a comparison between countries and sexes. A standard 'world' population as defined by WHO has been used here.

Estimated incidence of different types of cancer, 1990, EUR 12

(Standardized rates by age, per 100 000 inhabitants using a standard 'world' population)

	Men	Women
Total cancers	**274.4**	**209.3**
Lung cancer	59.3	10.8
Cancer of the colon and rectum	32.2	25.5
Breast cancer		58.5
Prostate cancer	28.2	
Stomach cancer	19.1	9.5
Cancer of the bladder	18.7	4.1
Cancer of the mouth and pharynx	12.8	3.0
Cervical cancer		10.1
Ovarian cancer		10.0
Cancer of the corpus uteri		9.7
Cancer of the larynx	8.8	0.7
Leukaemia	7.7	5.2
Cancer of the kidneys	7.3	3.7
Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma	7.1	4.8
Cancer of the pancreas	7.1	4.6
Cancer of the oesophagus	6.1	1.6
Cancer of the liver	5.9	2.4
Melanoma	4.0	4.8
Cancer of the testicles	3.1	
Hodgkin's disease	2.4	1.6

Source: WHO, IARC, Lyon.

Standardized mortality rates for cancer

(per 100 000 inhabitants)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Male												
1975-79	312.3	258.2	277.6	209.7	222.1	293.1	249.0	259.3	312.4	299.9	199.1	285.1
1980-84	325.1	278.5	277.3	213.0	228.2	300.5	249.8	280.3	330.0	307.2	199.4	281.3
1985-89	314.6 [1]	277.0	278.2	216.2	243.2	306.4	266.0	289.5	323.8	308.3	207.7	281.2
Female												
1975-79	188.5	195.5	176.7	116.8	125.2	140.0	182.7	145.0	171.9	165.8	122.0	179.4
1980-84	168.4	200.5	170.4	116.1	118.1	136.4	180.8	146.9	181.6	161.5	121.8	182.1
1985-89	176.5 [1]	204.0	167.3	115.1	118.1	133.3	186.5	147.6	168.1	164.1	121.3	187.9

Source: WHO, 'Health for all' database.
[1] 1986-87 data.

Standardized mortality rates show that cancers of the respiratory system are increasing in women.

Since the 1980s, almost half of the Union countries have reported slightly fewer male deaths from lung cancer, but for women the rate for death from cancers of the respiratory system (trachea, bronchi and lungs) is still on the increase in all countries except Greece, Luxembourg and Spain.

Standardized mortality rates for cancers of the respiratory system

(per 100 000 inhabitants)

	Female			Male		
	1981	1985	1989	1981	1985	1989
B	9.82	:	:	117.68	:	:
DK	23.01	28.28	31.01	81.21	83.61	80.70
D	8.79	9.78	11.80	73.11	74.60	72.87
GR	8.99	10.38	9.87	67.77	72.27	75.32
E	5.57	5.46	5.12	52.45	58.86	67.05
F	5.81	6.36	7.48	62.41	65.50	68.96
IRL	23.78	25.23	29.77	74.47	77.37	71.65
I	8.96	10.09	10.86	76.68	85.96	85.52
L	7.74	14.64	14.22	106.49	101.48	94.84
NL	9.50	11.83	14.90	117.15	116.67	109.81
P	5.42	5.56	6.04	27.85	35.26	35.10
UK	25.76	28.94	30.91	103.50	100.39	89.36

Source: WHO, Regional Office for Europe, 'Health for all' database.

There are major geographical differences in rates of death from cancer.

Thus for men, the risk of dying from cancer of the oesophagus is seven times greater in France than in Greece and the risk of dying from cancer of the testicles is five times greater in Denmark than in Belgium. For women in Scotland, the risk of dying from lung cancer or cancer of the bronchi is seven times greater than for women in Spain whilst for women in Denmark or Luxembourg the risk of dying from skin cancer is three times as high as in Portugal.

These differences are probably due in part to differences in life style. Two-thirds of cases appear to be linked to living conditions and numbers could therefore be reduced by better prevention.

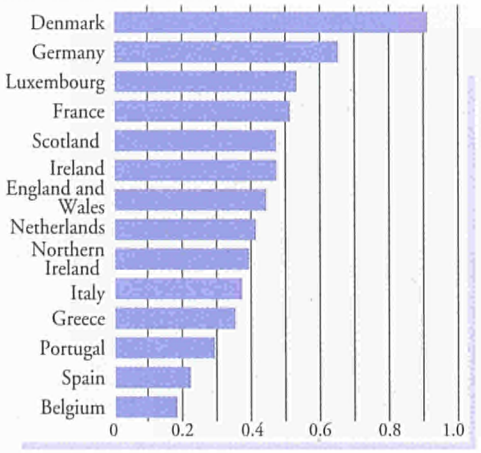
Data for four graphs, in decreasing order of country.

Standardized mortality rates for cancer, 1985-89 (per 100 000 inhabitants)

Men

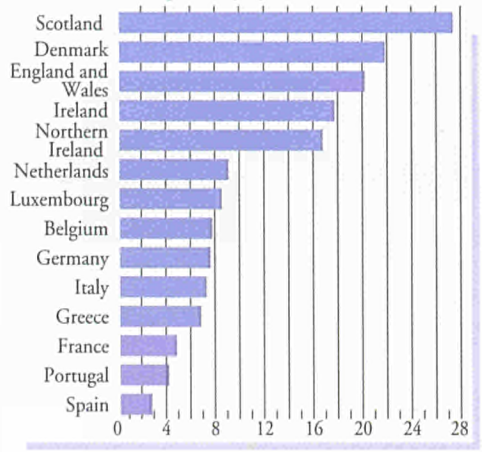
Cancer of the oesophagus

Cancer of the testicles

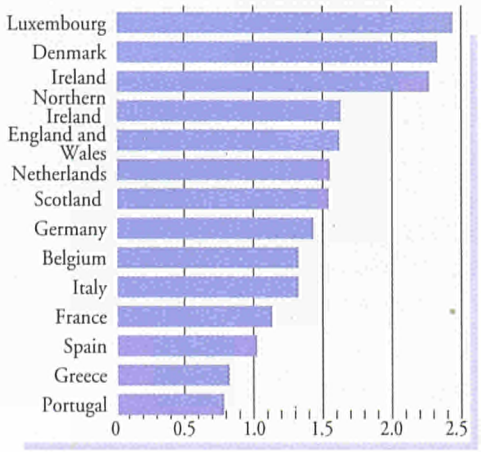


Women

Cancer of the respiratory system



Cancer of the skin



NB: The figures for Germany refer to the Federal Republic prior to unification.
Source: European Cancer News.

Smoking is one of the main causes of illness and disease, and currently 28% of women and 43% of men in the EU smoke.

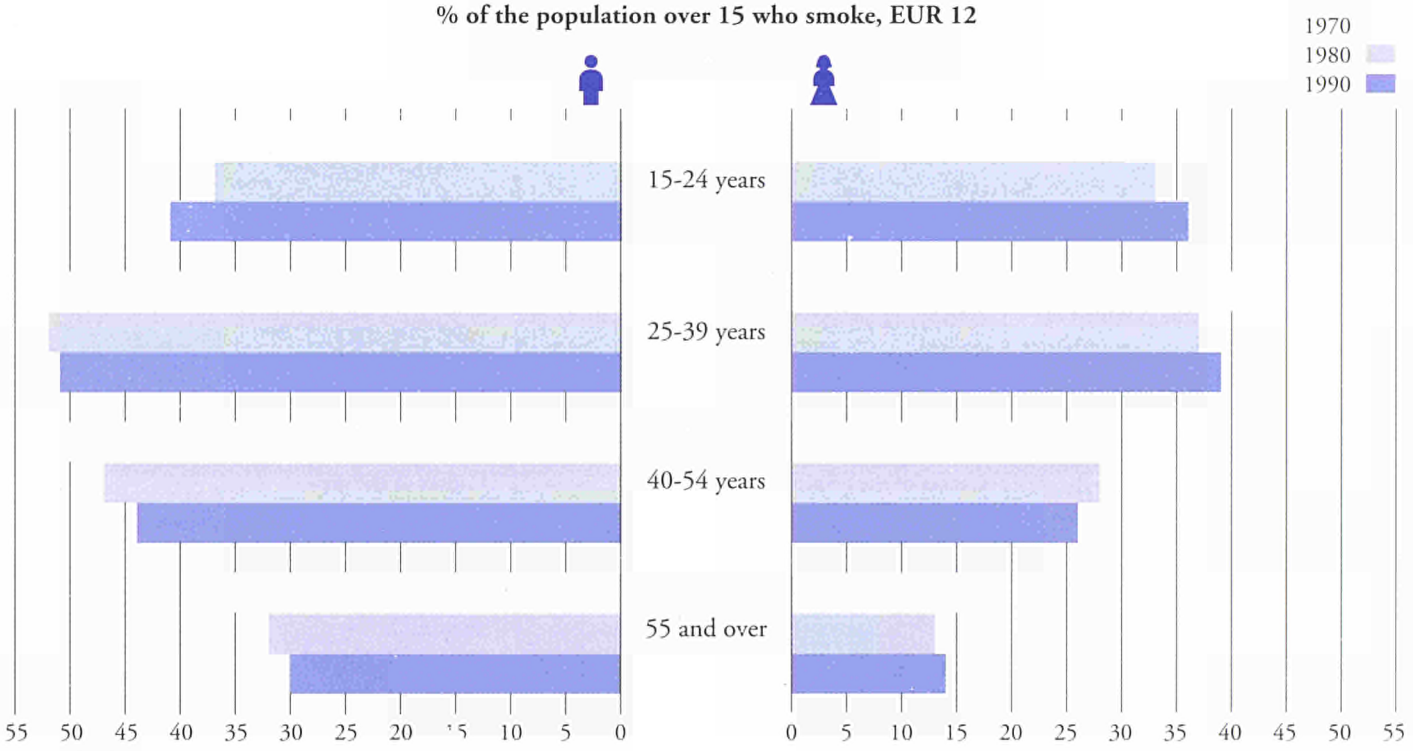
Numerous studies have shown that smoking is either the cause of or a contributory factor in various types of disease. In tables of morbidity and mortality, cardiovascular disorders are most frequently found at the top of the list, followed by lung cancer and obstructive chronic respiratory disorders such as chronic bronchitis and asthma.

A survey for the 'Europe against cancer' action programme showed that, in the Twelve Member States, one adult in three smoked.

Despite reservations about the figures owing to the size of the sample, it is clear that between 1988 and 1992 the percentage of male smokers aged over 25 fell, but the figures for women aged between 15 and 24 were on the increase.

Morbidity is the effect of disease on populations. As there is no clear dividing line between the morbid state and good health, it is difficult to compile morbidity statistics.

% of the population over 15 who smoke, EUR 12



Source: Eurobarometer.

In 1992, over two Europeans in five aged over 15 had never smoked.

Portugal has the lowest percentage of smokers in the population aged over 15: 61% have never smoked. In Denmark, France and Greece, over 40% of the population smoke.

In 1992, the majority of those in the Union who smoked were moderate smokers (between 10 and 24 cigarettes a day), one quarter were light smokers (under 10 cigarettes a day) and 13% were heavy smokers. Greece has a low percentage of smokers, but the figures are concentrated at the two ends of the scale: there are fewer light smokers than anywhere else and more heavy smokers (33%). There were proportionately more light smokers in Denmark and the Netherlands (over 30%) than in the other countries.

Breakdown of the population aged over 15 by smoking habits, 1992

(%)

	Population aged over 15 who			Current cigarette smokers			
	Have never smoked	Used to smoke	Still smoke	Total	Light smokers [1]	Moderate smokers [2]	Heavy smokers [3]
EUR 12	**45**	**21**	**35**	**100**	**25**	**62**	**13**
B	49	18	33	100	28	47	25
DK	38	16	46	100	30	65	5
D	46	22	32	100	20	67	13
GR	47	13	40	100	15	53	32
E	51	13	36	100	29	62	9
F	38	21	41	100	31	59	10
IRL	45	23	32	100	19	71	10
I	50	18	32	100	31	56	13
L	49	15	36	100	26	60	14
NL	38	24	38	100	33	56	11
P	61	13	26	100	28	60	12
UK	40	28	32	100	20	67	13

Source: Eurobarometer.

[1] Do not smoke every day/smoke fewer than 10 cigarettes a day.
[2] Smoke between 10 and 24 cigarettes a day.
[3] Smoke 25 cigarettes or more a day.

The figures are based on a survey. Around 1 000 interviews were conducted in every Member State apart from Germany, where there were 2 028 interviews, the United Kingdom (1 362) and Luxembourg (500).

On average, one European in 10 between 11 and 15 years' old has had a cigarette by the age of 11.

In Denmark, almost one in five in this age group has smoked by the age of 11. The proportions were lowest in Italy and Greece.

Young people (aged 11 to 15) who smoked their first cigarette before they were 11, 1990

(% of the age group)

EUR 12	**8**
Belgium	8
Denmark	22
Germany	10
Greece	6
Spain	10
France	9
Ireland	11
Italy	3
Luxembourg	11
Netherlands	9
Portugal	9
United Kingdom	10

Source: Survey in the Member States for the 'Europe against cancer' programme, 1990.

On average, 14% of young people (aged 11 to 15) may be considered to drink alcohol regularly.

In the Member States, 61% of those in this age group (65% of boys and 57% of girls) have drunk alcohol at some time or other, in most cases beer, wine or champagne. These figures indicate that the consumption of alcohol is generally accepted as normal practice in our society.

Young people (aged 11 to 15) who drink alcohol, 1990

(% of age group)

	Occasional drinker	Regular drinker [1]
EUR 12	**61**	**14**
B	63	14
DK	74	10
D	56	7
GR	79	25
E	54	12
F	59	7
IRL	35	1
I	63	29
L	57	7
NL	47	6
P	46	10
UK	75	12

Source: Survey in the Member States for the 'Europe against cancer' programme, 1990.

[1] At least once a week.

On 31 December 1993, a cumulative total of 107 114 cases of AIDS was diagnosed in the European Union, after adjustment for notification delays.

The number of cases of AIDS diagnosed in 1993 is estimated at 21 218, an increase of 11.6% on 1992. Most of the new cases concern men, although the percentage of women rose between 1990 and 1993 from 14.8% to 18.7%.

Over 60% of the women with AIDS are aged between 25 and 34 whereas among men AIDS is spread more or less evenly among the 25 to 49 age group with, however, the largest number of cases (one in three) occurring between 30 and 34.

Cases of AIDS ***notified*** for a given year may have been diagnosed in previous years. Consequently, the number of cases per year of diagnosis, adjusted to take account of the notification delays, is more appropriate than the number of cases per year of notification for studying the epidemiological trends of AIDS.

In percentage terms, more drug addicts than homosexual or bisexual men have the virus.

The percentage of cases in homosexual and bisexual men fell from 60% of notified cases in 1982 to 32.3% in 1993, whereas the percentage among drug addicts rose steadily to 42% of all AIDS cases in 1993 (year of diagnosis plus adjustments).

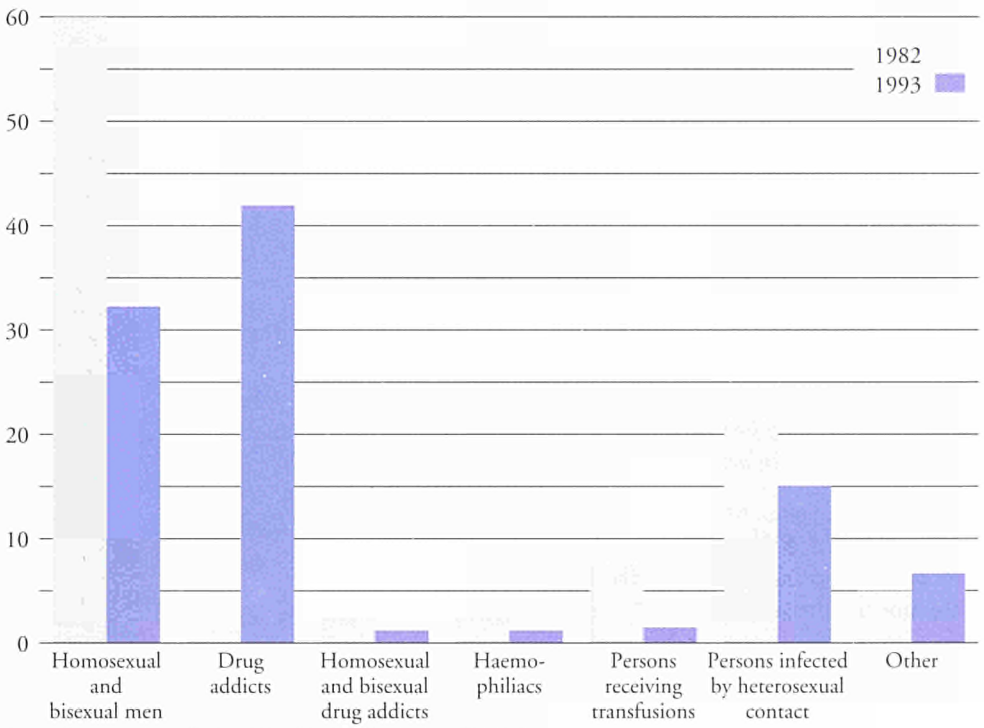
Cumulative cases of AIDS are all the cases counted between the time when records were first kept in Europe and 31 December 1993 (persons still sick or who have died).

Cases of AIDS by age class when diagnosed and by period of diagnosis, EUR 12

	Male				Female			
	1990		1993		1990		1993	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Age not known	31	0.3	46	0.3	2	0.1	12	0.6
Under 1 year	15	0.1	47	0.3	40	1.9	41	1.8
1-4 years	99	0.8	36	0.2	86	4.2	49	1.2
5-9 years	28	0.2	19	0.1	16	0.8	23	0.6
10-12 years	15	0.1	6	0.0	2	0.1	4	0.1
13-14 years	11	0.1	7	0.0	0	0	1	0.1
15-19 years	48	0.4	61	0.4	23	1.1	18	0.5
20-24 years	832	7.0	547	3.6	322	15.6	204	8.5
25-29 years	2 947	24.9	2 825	18.4	719	34.9	1 054	31.9
30-34 years	2 818	23.8	4 557	29.6	439	21.3	1 121	27.4
35-39 years	1 773	15.0	2 769	18.0	149	7.2	466	12.2
40-49 years	2 079	17.6	2 857	18.6	117	5.7	377	8.2
50-59 years	818	6.9	1 126	7.3	67	3.3	120	3.3
Over 59 years	328	2.8	485	3.2	78	3.8	93	3.6
Total	11 842	100	15 388	100	2 060	100	3 543	100
% by sex	85.2		81.3		14.8		18.7	

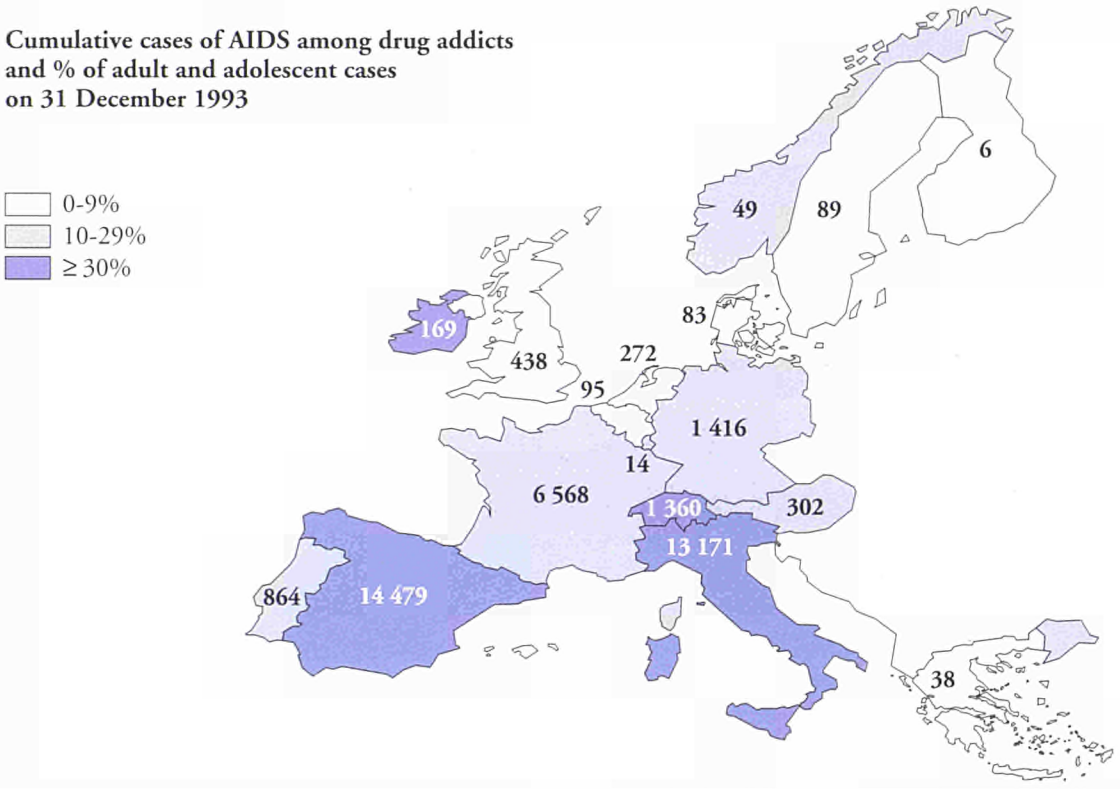
Source: European Centre for the Epidemiological Monitoring of AIDS (Paris).

Distribution of AIDS cases by transmission group, 1982 and 1993
EUR 12 (%)

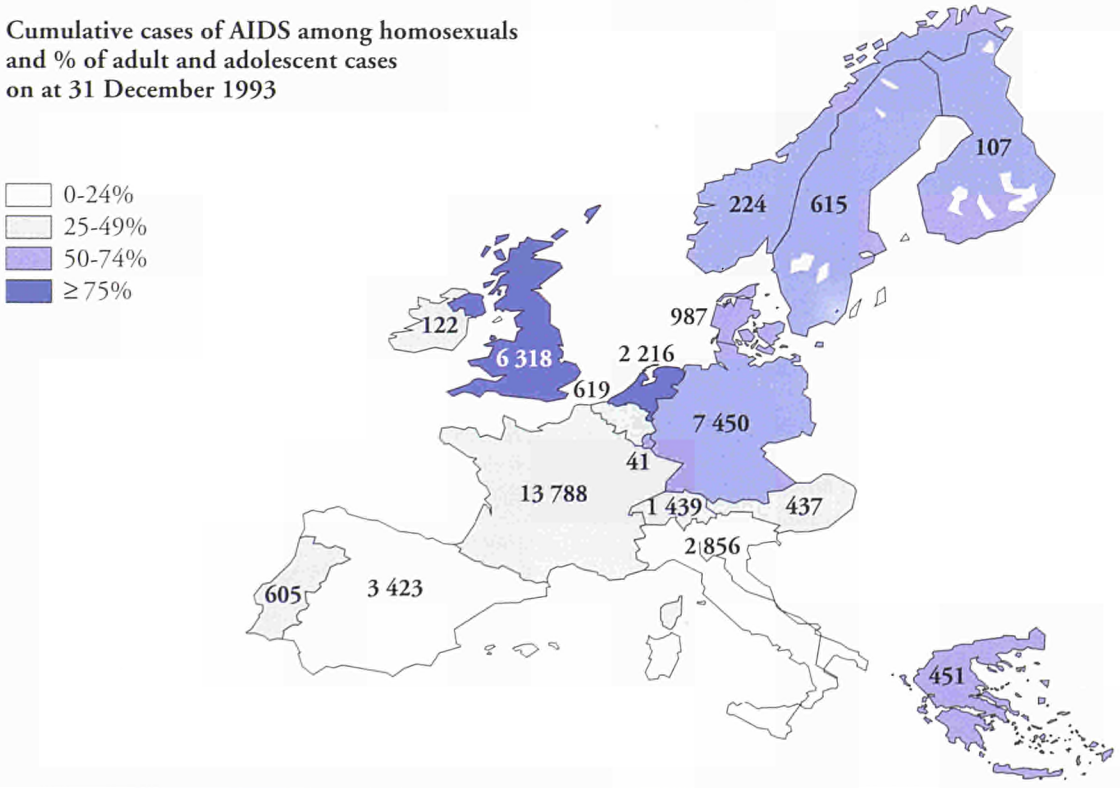


Source: European Centre for the Epidemiological Monitoring of AIDS (Paris).

Cumulative cases of AIDS among drug addicts and % of adult and adolescent cases on 31 December 1993



Cumulative cases of AIDS among homosexuals and % of adult and adolescent cases on at 31 December 1993



Source: European Centre for the Epidemiological Monitoring of AIDS (Paris).

In Europe, the number of cases where death has been linked to drug abuse has risen by a factor of five since 1980.

In the Schengen area alone (i.e. Belgium, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Spain), the number of deaths from overdoses rose from 1 034 in 1980 to 4 843 in 1991, excluding Belgian and Greek figures for the latter year.

It is very difficult to count numbers of drug addicts, but an analysis of various sources of information would suggest that, even taking into account differences in methodology, there are between 500 000 and 1 million addicts in the European Union.

Deaths from drug overdoses

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991
Total Schengen area	1 034	902	940	1 022	1 284	970	1 129	1 497	2 104	3 054	3 916	4 843
Belgium	31	30	19	29	32	12	20	17	21	48	91	:
Germany	494	360	383	472	361	324	348	442	670	991	1 491	2 125
Greece	5	10	17	9	12	10	28	56	62	61	66	:
Spain	27	40	61	93	170	143	189	189	271	599	690	813
France	172	141	164	190	237	172	185	228	236	318	350	411
Italy	206	237	252	257	392	238	280	505	786	970	1 152	1 279
Luxembourg	4	4	2	5	7	1	3	9	8	11	15	27
Netherlands	95	84	61	94	73	71	76	51	50	56	61	63

Sources: Interpol Lyon and national statistical institutes.

According to a survey, every year over 500 000 young people in Europe are offered drugs by the time they are 15.

Around 3.5 million young Europeans are offered drugs by the time they are 19. The same survey showed that one quarter of young Europeans have already been offered cannabis, and almost two-thirds of those questioned thought it likely that drugs were obtainable in schools!

On the basis of these figures, it would seem that as many as 550 000 young people are offered drugs by the time they reach 15, 1 400 000 when they are 15 or 16, 1 350 000 when they are 17 or 18 and 3 500 000 by the time they are 19.

The highest frequencies are in Denmark, France, the Netherlands and Spain and the lowest in Greece and Italy.

Young people's first encounter with drugs, 1992

(% of age groups)

	Under 15	15-16 years	17-18 years
EUR 12	**6.5**	**15.7**	**13.8**
Belgium	7.1	11.1	12.3
Denmark	10.8	25.5	18.9
Germany	3.5	8.0	7.2
Greece	1.6	5.2	9.5
Spain	9.6	26.4	16.8
France	6.4	20.6	15.8
Ireland	7.4	11.1	16.2
Italy	3.7	6.0	7.8
Luxembourg	4.7	13.7	13.4
Netherlands	7.0	19.8	16.9
Portugal	5.7	13.3	12.1
United Kingdom	8.7	16.6	16.9

Source: Eurobarometer.

Comparisons between countries of both staff and hospital beds should be treated with particular caution, since a given term may mean different things in different countries.

In 1991, almost 6.9 million people in the Union were working in the health sector (in the broad sense of the term, i.e. hospitals, medical practices, laboratories, etc.).

The number of doctors per 1 000 inhabitants ranged from 4.3 in Greece and 3.8 in Spain to 1.4 in Ireland and 2.2 in the United Kingdom. Compared with the 1985 figures, numbers rose in all the Member States except Denmark and Ireland.

The figures for dentists changed very little between 1985 and 1991 whilst the number of pharmacists increased, particularly in Belgium, France and Portugal. In Italy and Ireland, the number of pharmacists per 1000 inhabitants has decreased since 1985.

Up to 1985, a noticeable structural feature of hospital systems was the large number of small hospitals and the steady increase in the number of beds.

Since the 1980s, several countries have restructured their systems. Certain Member States have rationalized in line with regional requirements whilst taking into account the special situations of cities which might have several medical faculties. The effect of these changes may be seen in the fall in the number of hospital beds in almost all Member States both in terms of total numbers and number of beds available for emergencies and for psychiatric patients.

In 1989 there were over 10 beds per 1 000 inhabitants in Germany, Luxembourg and the Netherlands but fewer than five in Portugal and Spain.

Sick people are nowadays more likely to be hospitalized but average stays in hospital are shorter.

The number of admissions increased between 1985 and 1989, especially in general hospitals, in contrast to the number of days of treatment per person, which remained stable or declined as a result of the fall in the average time spent in hospital in all countries except the Netherlands, where it remained constant.

Staff working in health care

(per thousand inhabitants)

		B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Doctors	1985	2.8	2.6	2.5	3.0	3.3	2.3	1.3	4.2[2]	1.8	2.2	2.4	1.5
	1988	3.2[1]	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.5[1]	2.5	1.5	4.6[2]	1.9	2.4	2.7	1.4[3]
	1991	3.5	2.6	3.5	4.3	3.8	2.6	1.4	5.0[2]	2.1	2.5	2.9	2.2
Dentists	1985	0.6	1.0	0.6	0.9	0.1	0.6	0.3	:	0.5	0.5	0.1	0.4
	1988	0.7[1]	0.9	0.6	0.9	0.2[1]	0.6	0.3	:	0.5	0.5	0.1	0.4[3]
	1991	0.7	1.0	0.7	0.9	0.2	0.7	0.3	:	0.5	0.6	0.1	0.4
Pharmacists	1985	1.0	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.1	0.5	:
	1988	1.1[1]	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.8[1]	0.4	0.6	:	0.8	0.1	0.5	0.2[3]
	1991	1.3	0.3	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.8	0.1	1.3	0.2

Sources: OECD and Eurostat.

[1] 1987 data. [2] Including dentists. [3] 1986 data.

Numbers of hospital beds

(per thousand inhabitants)

		B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Total	1985	9.1	7.0	11.1	5.5	4.6	10.5	8.3	8.4	12.5	11.9	4.7	7.4
	1989	9.8	5.9	10.8	5.1	4.3	9.9	6.0	7.2	12.3	11.6	4.6	6.4
For psychiatric patients	1985	2.1	1.5	1.8	1.2	0.9	2.1	3.4	1.0	:	1.7	0.9	1.9
	1989	1.9	0.8	1.7	1.1	0.7	1.8	2.6	0.8	:	1.6	0.9	1.5
For emergencies	1985	5.9	5.1	7.6	:	3.5	5.7	4.9	:	:	4.7	3.8	2.9
	1988	5.6	4.7	7.3	:	3.5	5.3	3.4	:	7.2	4.4	3.7	:

Source: OECD, 'Eco-santé' database, 1993.

Admissions, day patients and length of treatment

(per thousand inhabitants)

		B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Rates of admission per 100 inhabitants	1985	14.9	19.9	19.9	11.9	9.3	21.1	17.0	17.0	18.8	11.4	8.5	15.5
	1989	18.0	21.1	21.5	12.6	9.8	22.8	15.2[1]	15.3	20.9	11.0	10.6	15.9[1]
Number of days in hospital per capita	1985	2.8	2.1	3.5	1.4	1.2	3.1	:	2.1	3.7	3.9	1.1	2.2
	1989	2.6	1.8	3.4	1.3	1.2	2.9	2.8	1.8	3.7	3.8	1.1	2.0
Average length of stay in hospital	1985	16.9	10.7	18.0	11.6	13.4	14.6	8.6	12.2	20.4	34.3	13.9	15.8
	1989	14.4	8.2	16.2	9.8	12.2	12.8	8.0	11.7	17.4	34.3	11.2	:

Source: OECD 'Eco-santé' database, 1993

[1] 1988 data.

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LIVING CONDITIONS

HOUSING

There was no change in the pattern of living in houses and flats during the 1980s.

People living alone tend to live in flats whereas couples, regardless of age and whether they have children or not, tend to live in houses.

On average, 60% of EU households own the house or flat they live in. A large majority of those 60% live in houses, whereas households renting accommodation tend to live in flats.

In the majority of the EU Member States there is a well-developed housing subsidy system.

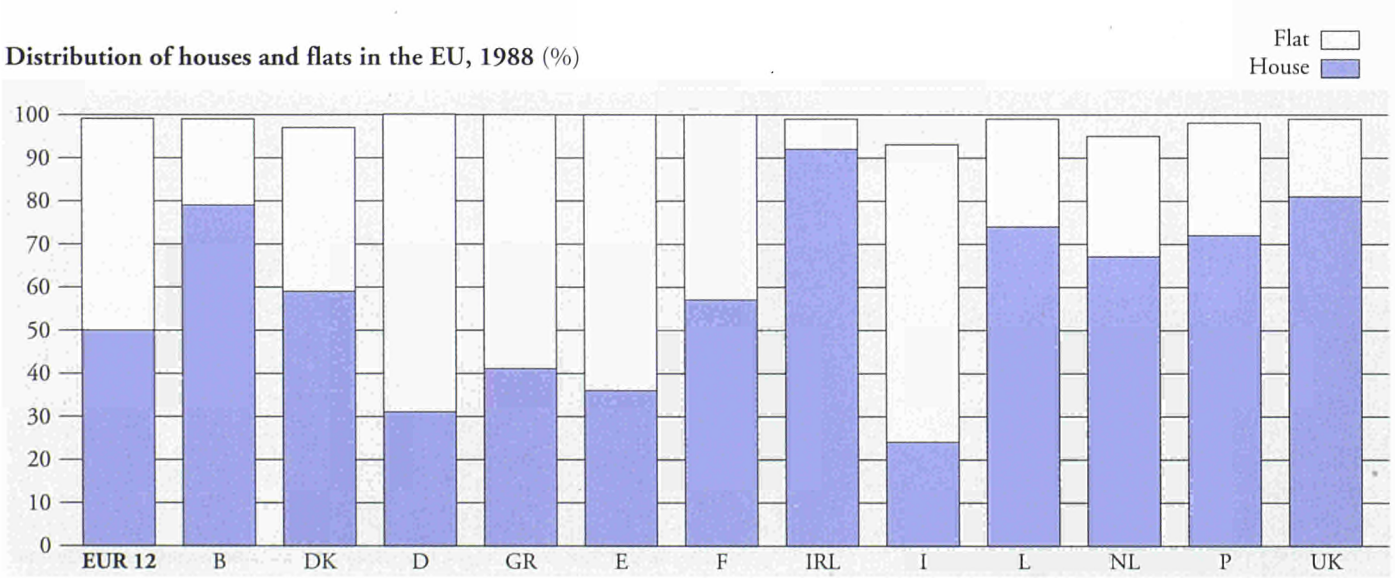
Differences in price levels for gross rents, fuel, electricity and construction divide Europe into a cheaper, southern fringe and a more expensive northern part, with Portugal at the bottom of the scale and Denmark at the top.

An average of 40% of residential buildings in the EU Member States were constructed in the period of economic upturn following the Second World War.

The average number of rooms per person varies from 1.32 in Portugal to 1.79 in Germany.

Since 1980, the standard of living in terms of amenities has risen in nearly all households in the European Union.

Distribution of houses and flats in the EU, 1988 (%)



NB: United Kingdom: 1992; Spain: 1990. The figures do not always add up to 100% because the 'other' category is excluded.

Half of EU households live in houses and 49% in flats.

In Ireland, more than 90% of households live in houses as against around 75% in Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. The percentage of households living in flats is particularly high in Italy (69%), Germany (69%), Spain (64%) and also Greece (59%). The pattern of living in a house or a flat seems to be influenced by the degree of urbanization of an area. In those five Member States where data are available (Belgium, Germany, Greece, France and Portugal), households living in urban areas (typically with more than 100 000 inhabitants) tend to live in flats, whereas houses are more common in rural and less densely populated areas.

In general, single people, and especially persons under 30, live in flats whereas couples tend to live in houses.

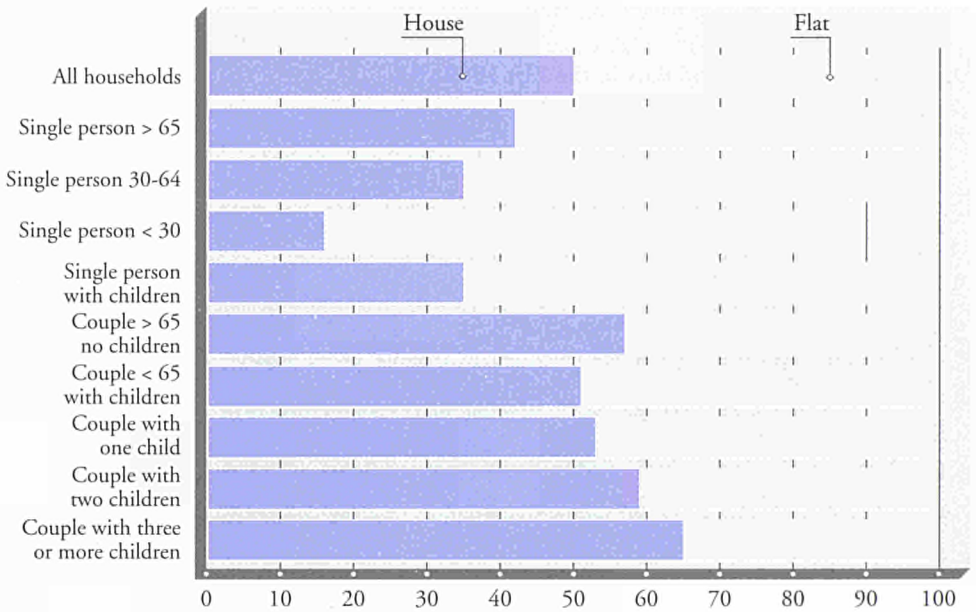
For a couple, the likelihood of living in a house increases with the number of children in the household, except in Greece, Spain and Portugal. In five out of 12 Member States (Belgium, Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom), around 90% or more of households made up of couples with two or more children live in houses. Most retired couples and those approaching retirement age live in houses.

The percentages of single persons under 30 living in flats are especially high in Germany, Greece, France, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands.

Many young people moving out of their parents' homes choose to live in flats. Older single-person households are more likely to live in houses than in flats. In 10 out of 12 Member States, more than 40% (88% in Ireland) of people over 65 live alone live in houses.

In EU family budget surveys, the definition of a household differs slightly from one country to another. In most cases, the household is defined as a social unit which meets one or more criteria of 'living together' in addition to living under the same roof.

Houses and flats by type of household, 1988, EUR 12 (%)



NB: The figures do not always add up to 100% because the 'other' category is excluded.

On average 60% of EU households own the accommodation they live in.

The percentage of owners is particularly high in some of the peripheral Member States (Greece (71%), Spain (74%) and Ireland (77%), but also in Luxembourg (75%). Two Member States, Germany and the Netherlands, are unusual in that only 46 and 47% of households respectively own their accommodation.

In general, couples in the EU own their accommodation,

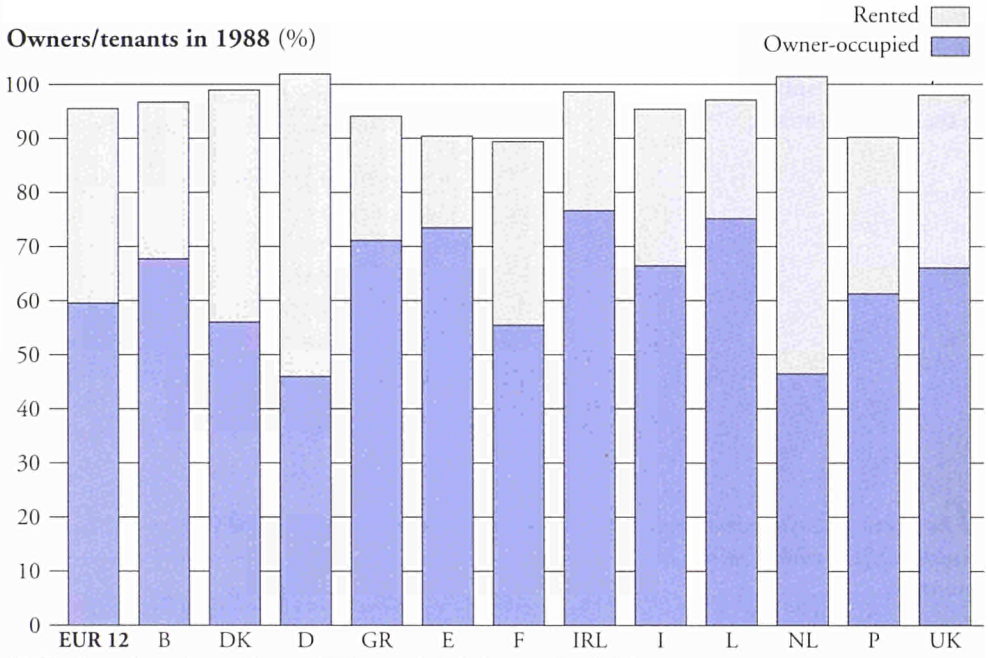
whereas one-person households tend to rent. In particular, the majority of young people living alone live in rented accommodation, mostly flats.

More single adults with children (59%) live in rented accommodation than couples with children (around 30%).

Two thirds of single-parent families live in rented flats whereas, on average, less than half of couples with one or more children do. Thus, there is a general link between households made up of single women with children and a below-average level of expenditure and those living in rented accommodation, often flats. Households consisting of couples with children tend to have an expenditure level close to or above average and to own their own accommodation.

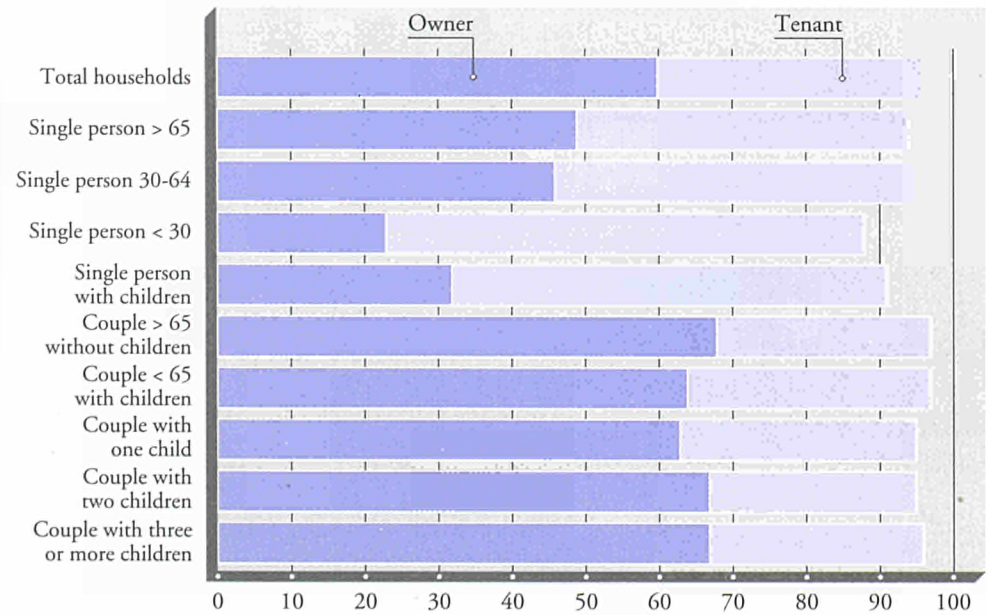
Owner-occupied accommodation includes households paying off mortgages.
Rented dwellings are those not owned by the occupants of the accommodation or by any other member of the household.

Owners/tenants in 1988 (%)



NB: The figures do not always add up to 100% because the 'other' category is excluded.

Breakdown of households by status as owner/tenant, 1988 (%)



NB: The figures do not always add up to 100% because the 'other' category is excluded.

At the end of the 1980s 7% more households were owner-occupiers than at the beginning.

This general trend applies in all the EU Member States but has been particularly marked in the United Kingdom (+12%), Italy (+10%), whereas the situation was more stable, showing only slight increases, in the other countries.

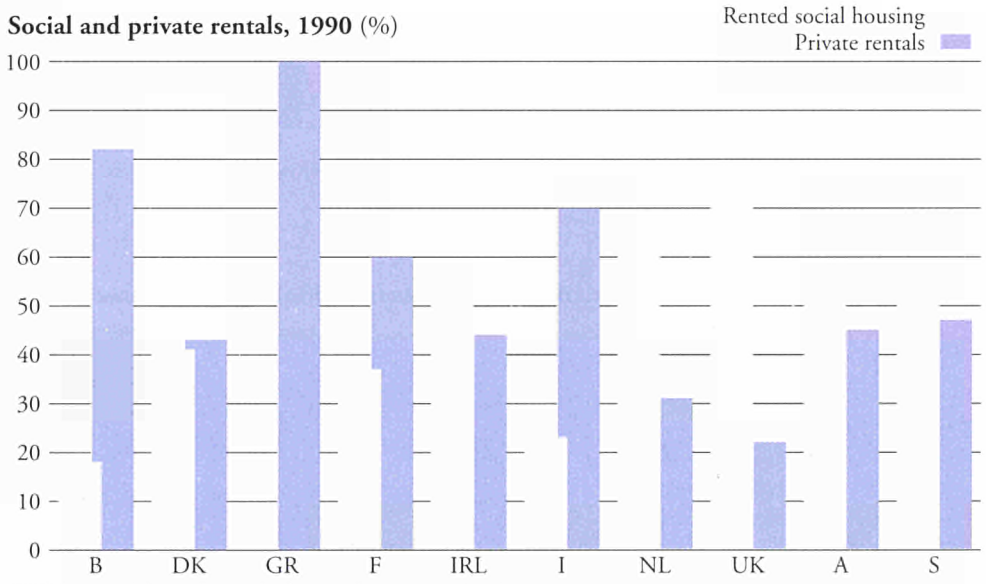
Owner-occupied housing (Evolution 1980-88) (%)

[1] 1980: except Greece, Luxembourg and Portugal.

The share of social versus private rentals differs widely in the EEA countries.

Rented social housing is common in Ireland, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Austria and Sweden, but virtually unknown in Greece. In Denmark, France and Italy most rentals are private.

Social and private rentals, 1990 (%)



NB: France: 1992 data. Ireland and Italy: 1989 data. Austria: 1991 data.

There is no uniform definition of the following two concepts:

Private rentals are of dwellings that belong to private persons and are intended to be let to private persons. The private rental sector functions under market conditions.

Rented social housing are dwellings built by public institutions or non-profit housing societies/associations. The rent paid is fixed in some way (e.g. independently of the free market) and often subsidized.

In the majority of the EU Member States there is a well-developed system for subsidizing either the dwelling or the specific groups of people living in it.

Thus it is common practice in the EU Member States to relieve households of some of the financial burden connected with housing. It is widespread practice to grant a capital subsidy for a newly built dwelling, for improvements or for dwellings in urban renewal areas, regardless of whether the accommodation is owner-occupied or rented. Rent subsidies tend to be given to households living in rented accommodation although owner-occupied dwellings in half of the Member States may also be subsidized. Only Luxembourg seems less inclined to operate any of the various subsidy systems.

Housing subsidies to specific groups of people are less common.

A low-income household will receive a subsidy, no matter in which of the 14 countries it is resident. The definition of 'a low-income household' may, though, vary considerably from country to country. Most countries also give a subsidy to elderly and disabled persons (9 and 11 out of 14 countries respectively), whereas students, foreign residents and refugees will seldom be eligible for a housing allowance anywhere. A number of other non-specific housing-aid schemes exist in some countries.

Subsidy system, 1993

		B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
New dwelling [1]	Rented dwelling	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+
	Owner-occupied	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
Housing improvements	Rented dwelling	+	+	+ [1]	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+
	Owner-occupied	+	+	+ [1]	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+
Rent allowance, subsidies	Occupants, rented dwellings	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+
	Occupants, owner-occupied dwellings	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	+
Urban renewal grant		+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+

Special subsidies for housing, 1992-93

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F [4]	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	A	S
Low-income households	+	+	+	+	+	+ [5]	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Disabled persons	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+ [3]	+	+	+
Students	-	-	+ [3]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+
The elderly	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	+
Foreign residents	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
Refugees	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other specific groups	-	+ [2]	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+ [6]	+

NB: + = exists; - = does not exist.

[1] Not in all *Länder* of the former Federal Republic of Germany.

[2] Households with children.

[3] Under special conditions.

[4] Special housing subsidies for specific groups are normally granted in respect of the capital outlay and not the households concerned.

[5] No groups specified.

[6] Young householders (up to 35 years' old).

France has a high percentage (40%) of housing built before 1918.

The housing stock increased less in percentage terms in the period leading up to and during the Second World War. Only Italy has a high percentage of housing stock dating from that period (26%).

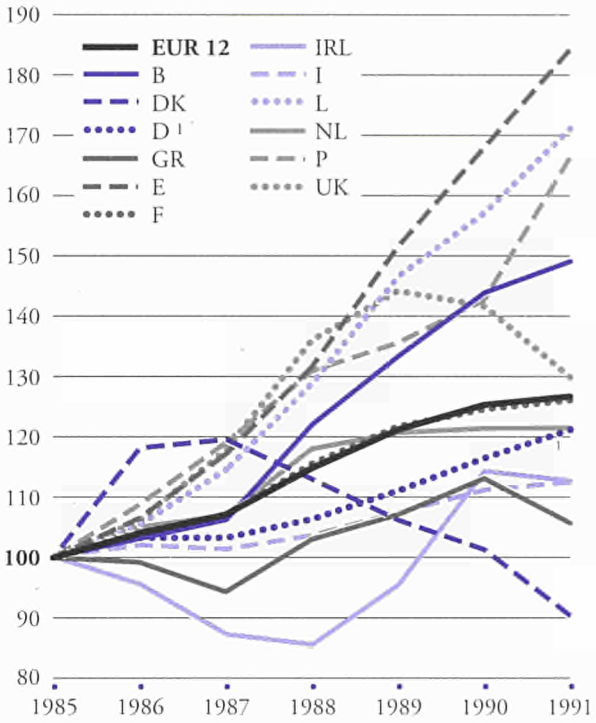
In the EU as a whole, 40% of residential buildings were constructed during the period of economic upturn following the Second World War.

Nearly 16% of the EU's current housing stock was built in the 1970s and 1980s. This general statement covers marked differences between the EU Member States. Firstly, there was intense construction activity at different times. There was a noticeable slowdown in activity in some Member States (especially Belgium, Italy, Luxembourg and France) in the 1970s under the impact of the two oil crises, whereas activity in other northern and peripheral countries (Spain, Ireland and the Netherlands) did not peak until the 1970s.

From 1985 to 1991, the volume index of construction in the EU rose by approximately 25%.

The volume index of construction rose faster than the GDP volume index in most Member States between 1985 and 1991, which means that construction activities generated a greater share of the EU's GDP than before. There was an enormous increase in the volume of construction, as well as in its share of GDP, in Spain, Luxembourg and Portugal and a less significant rise in Belgium, France, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. There was a slight increase in Greece, Ireland and Italy but compared with the overall growth in GDP the share of construction activities fell slightly. In Germany, movements in the volume index paralleled the increase in GDP between 1985 and 1991. In Denmark. there was a decrease in the volume of construction as well as in its share of GDP, reflecting a marked rise in the volume index from 1985 to 1986 and an equally spectacular fall in the period 1987 to 1991.

Construction index (1985=100), volume terms



Source: Cronos, national accounts database.
[1] Federal Republic of Germany prior to unification.

Housing by year of construction

(%)

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR (1)	E	F (2)	IRL	I	L (3)	NL	P	UK (4)
Pre-1918	26 [5]	33	24	27	16	:	40	23	25	21	29	:	27
1918-45	19	21	19	23	18	14	11	16	26	14	12	:	19
1946-70	39	37	32	37	66	42	37	25	46	57	42	:	32
Post-1970	16 [6]	8	25	13	:	44	12	36	3	8	16	:	22

[1] 'Post-1970' is included in '1946-70'.
[2] The periods are: '1919-48', '1949-67' and 'post-1968'.
[3] The periods are: 'pre-1919', '1919-45', '1946-65' and 'post-1966'.
[4] The data cover Great Britain. 1918 is included in 'pre-1918'.
[5] Excluding Spain and Portugal.
[6] Excluding Greece and Portugal.

The indices dealt with in this chapter are taken from the EC system of national accounts. The construction index forms part of the gross fixed capital formation of an economic territory. Gross fixed capital formation is defined as 'the value of durable goods intended for non-military purposes, each of more than about 100 EUA (European Unit of Account) in value, which are acquired by resident producer units in order to be used for a period of more than one year in their process of production, including the value of any services embodied in fixed capital goods.' (ESA — European system of integrated economic accounts — 1979).

The volume index covers all construction activities, i.e. the building of all structures, whether residential or not.

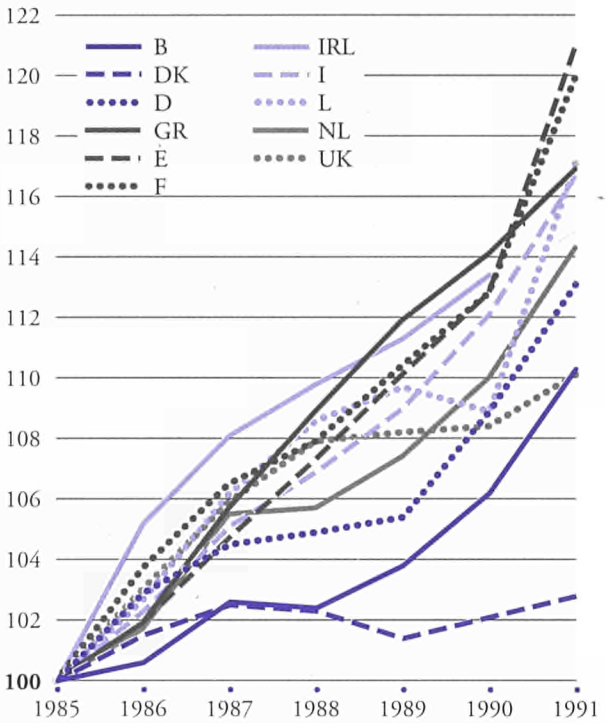
There was a moderate rise in the final consumption of households as regards gross rent, fuel and electricity in all the EU Member States between 1985 and 1991.

In contrast to the previous item, final consumption in the form of gross rent, fuel and electricity has risen at a slower pace than the GDP volume index in all but two Member States. Thus the consumption of rent, fuel and electricity generates a smaller share of the EU's GDP than before. The two exceptions are Greece and France, where there were slight increases in the share of GDP accounted for by this item between 1985 and 1991.

Portugal is by far the cheapest EU Member State to live in where gross rents, fuel, electricity and construction are concerned and Denmark is the most expensive.

The price levels of the latter items in the Scandinavian countries correlate more closely. Price levels for fuel and electricity differ very little in the European countries other than Denmark, where prices are relatively high. Levels of gross rents fluctuate more, from the lowest, 34% of the average, in Portugal to the highest, 190% of the average, in Switzerland.

Final consumption of households: gross rent, fuel and electricity (1985 = 100)



NB: Portugal: data not available.
Source: Cronos, national accounts database.

Consumer price index, gross rents, fuel, electricity and construction, 1992

(EUR 12 = 100)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	A	FIN	S	CH
Gross rents, fuel and electricity	115	135	137	67	80	109	67	73	100	117	47	86	108	118	162	160
Gross rents	126	135	151	63	76	112	59	64	115	129	34	89	112	135	183	190
Fuel and electricity	96	140	106	88	96	106	93	108	79	88	94	82	100	79	111	81
Construction	94	126	117	76	90	95	77	99	115	116	59	87	99	86	142	110
Residential buildings	100	140	125	76	77	91	73	96	110	119	55	80	114	91	144	117
Non-residential buildings	94	118	111	79	86	97	87	99	129	116	70	95	94	81	132	110
Other structures	85	116	108	74	106	96	73	107	105	110	54	83	82	85	154	98

In general, more households in the north of the EU are paying mortgages than in the south.

An estimated 90% of owner-occupied dwellings in Denmark are mortgaged compared with 14% and 15% in Portugal and Greece respectively.

The average interest rate on mortgages is higher in the south of the Community than in the north.

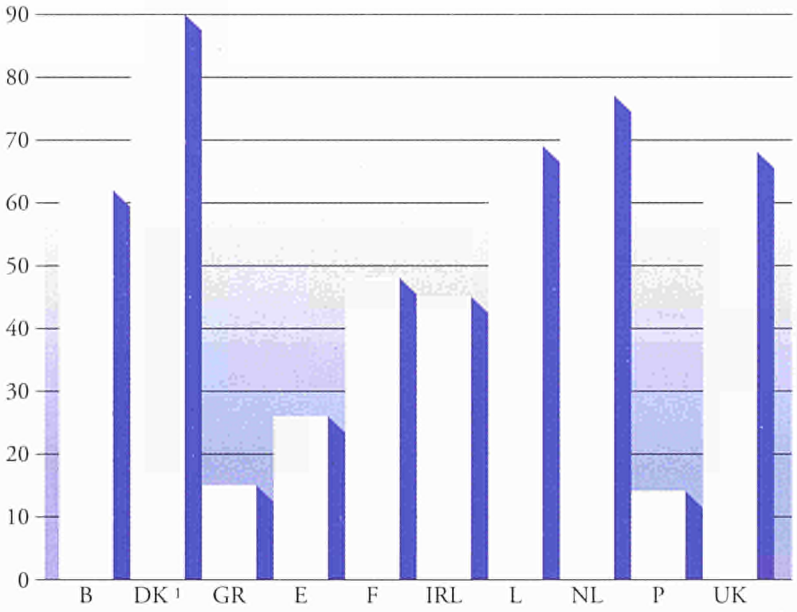
But whereas the interest rate fell in Portugal and Italy and was stable in Spain from 1985 to 1991, it rose in Greece. These movements mirrored inflation levels — falling in the former countries but rising in Greece in the 1980s.

A comparison of the northern countries of the Union between 1985 and 1991 shows that interest rates did not change a great deal. In some Member States (Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg and the Netherlands) they rose from a low initial level and in others (Denmark, France and the United Kingdom) they fell from a slightly higher level. Thus, the overall tendency was for differences in mortgage interest rates in the Member States to become less marked during the 1980s.

On average, 69% of households in the EU live in accommodation which has three to five rooms.

The exceptions are Greece, Luxembourg and, to a lesser degree, Ireland and Belgium. In Denmark, France and Greece, an exceptionally high proportion of households lives in accommodation with one or two rooms whereas approximately half of the households in Luxembourg, Ireland and Belgium have six or more rooms to live in. The number of rooms inhabited by a household remained stable or increased only slightly during the 1980s.

Owner-occupied dwellings with mortgages (% of owner-occupied stock) 1993



NB: Belgium: 1992 data; Netherlands: 1991 data; Portugal: 1981data; United Kingdom: 1990 data.
[1] Estimations.

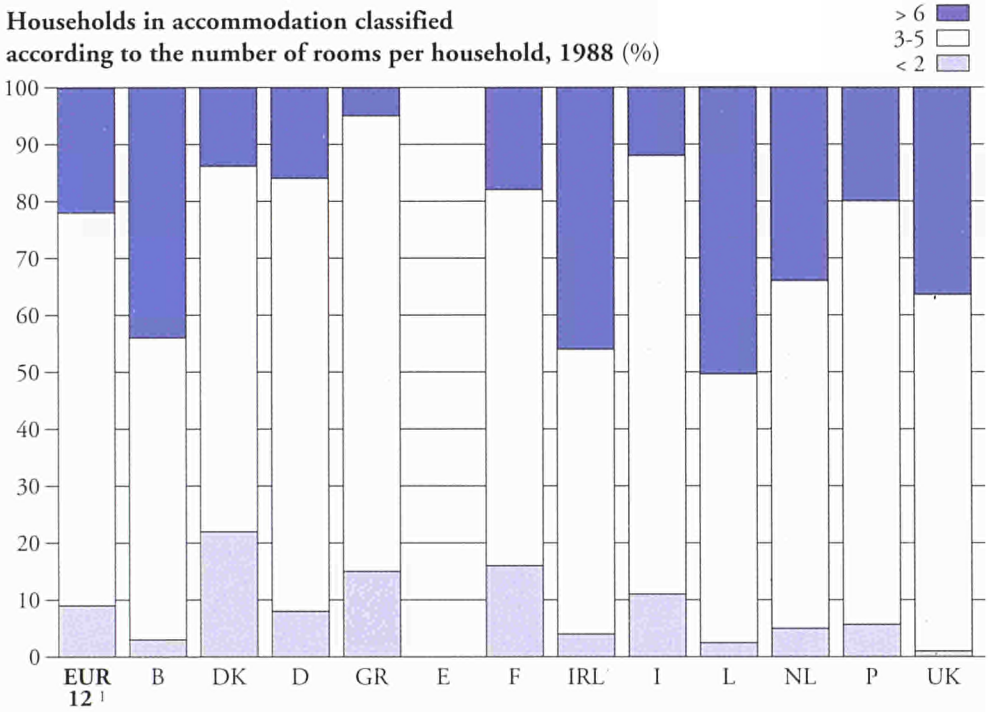
A room is defined as 'a space in a dwelling enclosed by walls reaching from the floor to the ceiling or roof covering, or at least to a height of 2 metres above the ground, of a size large enough to hold a bed for an adult (4 square metres at least) and at least 2 metres high over the major area of the ceiling' (UN, 1993). Kitchenettes, corridors, verandas, utility rooms (e.g. boiler rooms, laundry rooms) and lobbies do not count as rooms, nor do bathrooms and toilets.

The average number of rooms available per person varies considerably from one Member State to another.

Thus in Belgium people have on average 2.04 rooms whereas in Portugal they have 1.32, a difference of nearly 55%. Those Member States (Belgium, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom) where most households live in houses also have the highest number of rooms per person. In Italy households live predominantly in flats and have a fairly low number of rooms per person (1.35).

Portugal and Germany run counter to this pattern, the former having most households living in houses but with only 1.32 rooms per person and the latter having most households residing in flats but with 1.79 rooms per person.

Households in accommodation classified according to the number of rooms per household, 1988 (%)



[1] Excluding Spain: data not available.

Persons living alone have at least twice as many rooms as couples with children.

Couples without children also have more rooms per person than couples with children but fewer than persons living alone. In all the Member States for which data are available, the number of rooms per person decreases as household size increases.

Number of rooms per person, 1988

	B	D	F	I	L	NL	P	UK
All households	2.04	1.79	1.43	1.35	1.85	1.79	1.32	2.00
Single person > 65	3.85	3.13	2.63	2.86	4.55	3.57	3.23	4.00
Single person 30-64	3.85	2.78	2.38	2.94	3.85	3.33	3.45	4.00
Single person < 30	3.13	1.89	1.56	2.56	2.86	2.08	3.33	3.13
Single adult with children	1.85	1.59	1.27	1.39	1.85	1.82	1.41	1.75
Couples without children > 65	2.50	2.00	1.89	1.69	2.78	2.08	1.96	2.33
Couples without children < 65	2.44	2.04	1.69	1.79	2.38	2.27	2.04	2.44
Couples with one child	1.69	1.43	1.32	1.27	1.69	1.61	1.35	1.69
Couples with two children	1.39	1.15	1.12	0.97	1.41	1.27	1.04	1.37
Couples with three or more children	1.15	0.93	0.93	0.77	1.15	0.94	0.71	1.05

Most households in the EU possess basic necessities such as WC, bath/shower and hot running water.

In the colder north of the EU, central heating systems also are common, except in Ireland, where only a little over half of households have central heating.

Nearly every household has a telephone.

Telephones are widespread nowadays except in Portugal, where only 41% of households have one.

It is less common to have accommodation with a garage,

especially in the south of the EU (Greece, Portugal and Spain) and in Ireland. One of the obvious determinants for having a garage is car ownership. Thus countries with the highest number of cars per 1 000 inhabitants (Luxembourg, Germany, Italy and France) also have the highest number of dwellings with garages (apart from Italy).

During the 1980s, living standards as represented by amenities in general improved in all the EU Member States.

Most of those few households where there were no basic amenities such as inside WC, bath/shower and hot running water in 1980 had them installed during the 1980s. More households also have a telephone and a garage. As for second homes, they are still restricted to a small minority overall.

Amenities

(%)

	B	DK	D	GR	E (1)	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
1980												
Inside WC	87	:	97	:	92	82	83	96	:	:	:	93
Bath/shower on the premises	80	89	93	:	83	80	80	88	:	96	:	97
Hot running water on the premises	70	97	93	:	77	88	81	78	:	:	:	:
Central heating (full or partial)	56	96	67	:	8	63	35	40	:	61	:	55
Telephone	63	90	70	:	51	53	32	54	:	85	:	67
Accommodation with garage	:	:	45	:	10	52	29	35	:	32	:	43
Second home	4	10	:	:	:	12	2	4	:	2	:	:
1988												
Inside WC	94	97	99	85	97	94	94	99	99	:	80	99[2]
Bath/shower on the premises	92	94	97	85	96	93	92	95	97	99	:	100[2]
Hot running water on the premises	87	:	98	84	:	95	91	93	97	100	:	:
Central heating (full or partial)	63	88	71	38	:	74	58	:	88	78	:	77
Telephone	84	94	88	75	:	93	54	79	98	97	41	86
Accommodation with garage	63	:	55	2	27	60	29	43	75	32	21	42[3]
Second home	5	12	:	12	8	9	2	6	:	1	4	3

[1] 1990.
[2] UK census.
[3] 1992, *Family Expenditure Survey.*

Houses and flats by type of household in the EU countries, 1988 *(%)*

		All households	Single person > 65	Single person 30-64	Single person < 30	Single adult with children	Couples > 65 without children	Couples < 65 without children	Couples with 1 child	Couples with 2 children	Couples with 3 or more children
EUR 12	House	50	42	35	16 [3]	35 [3]	57	51	53	59	65
	Flat	49	55	63	71 [3]	60 [3]	41	47	46	40	34
B	House	79	59	63	45	57	80	82	85	92	98
	Flat	20	41	37	55	40	19	18	14	8	2
DK	House	59	47	31	9	38	66	65	78	92	90
	Flat	38	53	69	59	61	33	34	22	8	10
D	House	31	16	11	4	21	35	32	39	47	58
	Flat	69	83	87	93	78	64	68	60	52	40
GR	House	41	49	32	7	29	61	45	27	25	43
	Flat	59	51	68	92	70	39	55	73	75	57
E [1]	House	36	47	33	:	24	47	34	22	24	32
	Flat	64	53	67	:	76	53	66	78	76	68
F	House	57	54	39	13	33	75	62	63	73	75
	Flat	43	46	61	87	67	26	38	37	28	25
IRL	House	92	88	81	32	73	96	93	92	97	98
	Flat	7	10	17	68	25	4	7	7	2	2
I	House	24	23	18	17	14	26	21	20	22	30
	Flat	69	68	75	78	81	66	73	76	73	66
L	House	74	64	39	16	66	84	71	77	84	86
	Flat	25	35	60	83	35	16	29	23	16	14
NL	House	67	42	33	13	:	61	69	80	89	94
	Flat	28	47	60	75	:	36	28	16	10	4
P	House	72	76	74	48	61	77	70	63	64	76
	Flat	26	20	23	52	34	20	28	35	33	19
UK [2]	House	81	65	64	33	77	86	86	88	94	96
	Flat	18	34	34	64	25	14	13	11	5	6

Sources: Family Budget Surveys 1988; Spain: *Family Budget Survey* 1990; UK: *Family Expenditure Survey.*

[1] 1990 data; category 'single person < 30' is included in 'single person 30-64'.

[2] 1992 data.

[3] Excludes the Netherlands.

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LIVING CONDITIONS

ENVIRONMENT

In 1992, 85% of Europeans thought that the fight against pollution was a matter of great urgency.

Air pollution has both social and economic implications as it affects health, monuments and the quality of products. Certain emissions have been reduced following structural changes, often resulting from European legislation on air pollution. For example, sulphur dioxide emissions have been reduced by 50% since 1970.

Pollution resulting from traffic, which has doubled over the last 20 years, and noise pollution, have increased, particularly in urban areas. In addition, the road network covers a fairly large area and road surfacing affects the hydrological system.

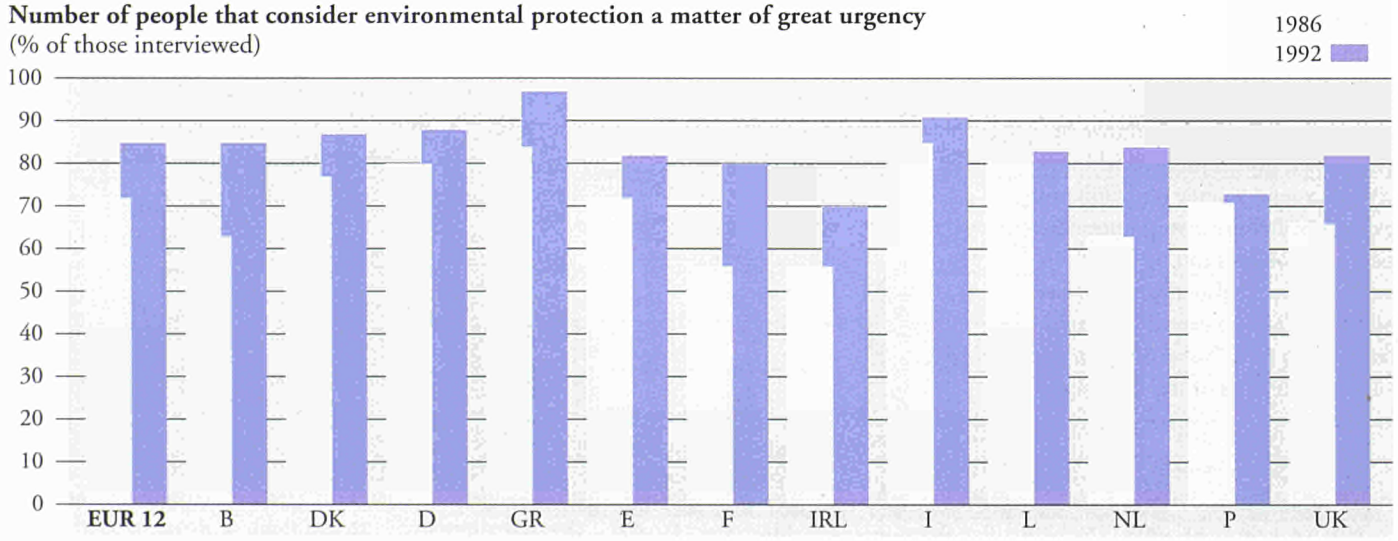
In order to meet its ever-increasing energy requirements, man uses fossil fuels which, when burnt, emit carbon dioxide. In combination with others, this gas, emissions of which have been constantly increasing, has a major influence on the heating of the atmosphere — a phenomenon known as the 'greenhouse effect'.

Water extraction affects the level of ground water and can cause droughts. Waste water discharged after use presents major pollution problems, which in turn cause water-supply problems.

Improved drainage and the treatment of urban and industrial waste water in purification plants have resulted in control of 'organic' pollution. Policy nowadays concentrates on the elimination of nutrients in order to deal with the problem of eutrophication.

Between 1980 and 1990, the amount of municipal waste produced in the European Union increased from 290 kg to 350 kg per inhabitant. Community policy aims to reduce the amount of waste and promote recycling.

Number of people that consider environmental protection a matter of great urgency
(% of those interviewed)



Source: Eurobarometer.

The environment is mankind's physical surroundings on which people depend for their existence and all their activities.

People need air to breathe, water to drink and for numerous other purposes, meat (animals) and vegetables (plants) for food, materials taken from the earth for his accommodation and other buildings, and areas for production, travel and recreation, etc.

The increase in consumption by the human population in an inevitably limited space and the increasingly intensive use made of natural resources are weighing more and more heavily on the environment, the components of which (earth, water and air) are losing their pristine quality and are being 'denatured' by all kinds of pollution and nuisances.

This deterioration of the environment has implications for health and the quality of life which are difficult to quantify. To offset these negative effects, man has to spend money on medical care and travel to get away from it all and has to pay anti-pollution taxes, which increase the cost of living. The negative effects of these 'supplementary' activities in turn cost money and it will be difficult to get out of the vicious circle because of the economic interests involved.

In addition to the expenditure by the public, governments and industry also spend money on combating pollution. Investment in antipolllution technologies can be fairly substantial and also affect the price of products to an extent varying from 0.3% to 1.7% of GDP in the various countries of the European Union.

The population is becoming increasingly aware of environmental problems.

Attention is primarily concentrated on the damaging effects of industry, energy production and conversion, transport and agriculture. In 1992, 85% of people living in the European Union felt that environmental protection and fighting pollution were urgent problems (an increase of 10% compared with 1986).

People have also realized that the power to influence the state of the environment does not only lie with governments and the major corporations. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) such as Greenpeace or the World-wide Fund for Nature (WWF) have expanded rapidly and demonstrated that they can contribute to the debate on environmental policy at both local and world level.

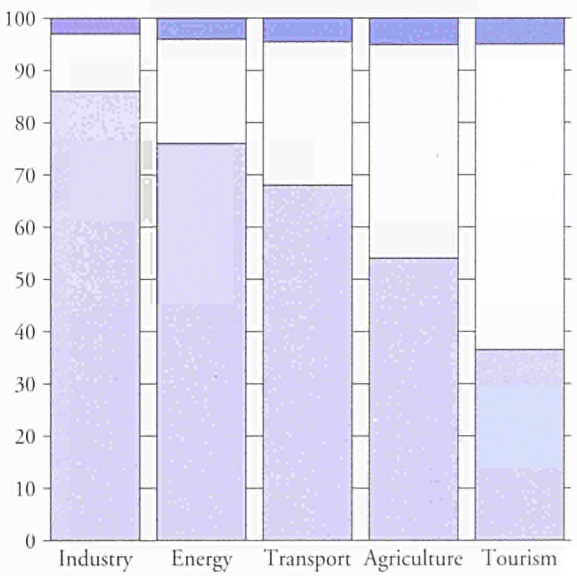
Consumers are also turning more and more to 'green' products — a change in behaviour which encourages less intensive agricultural production and industrial production which takes account of environmental protection.

National expenditure on environmental protection in 1990

	Total, % GDP	% of total environmental expenditure			
		Water	Waste	Air	Other
B	:	:	:	:	:
DK	1.0	50	33	:	:
D	1.6	48	23	26	3
GR	:	:	:	:	:
E	0.6	54	37	2	7
F	1.0	43	44	10	3
IRL	:	:	:	:	:
I	0.3	70	7	0	23
L	:	:	:	:	:
NL	1.6	39	25	13	23
P	0.8	37	13	1	49
UK	1.5	39	26	22	13
A	1.7	52	26	16	6
FIN	:	:	:	:	:
IS	:	:	:	:	:
N	:	:	:	:	:
S	0.7	44	37	5	14
CH	0.8	59	38	1	4

NB: The data refer to 1990 or the closest available year. The figures for Denmark, Spain, Italy, Sweden and Switzerland refer only to the public sector.
Source: OECD.

Public opinion on the damage caused to the environment by certain sectors in 1992, EUR 12
(percentage of the population interviewed)

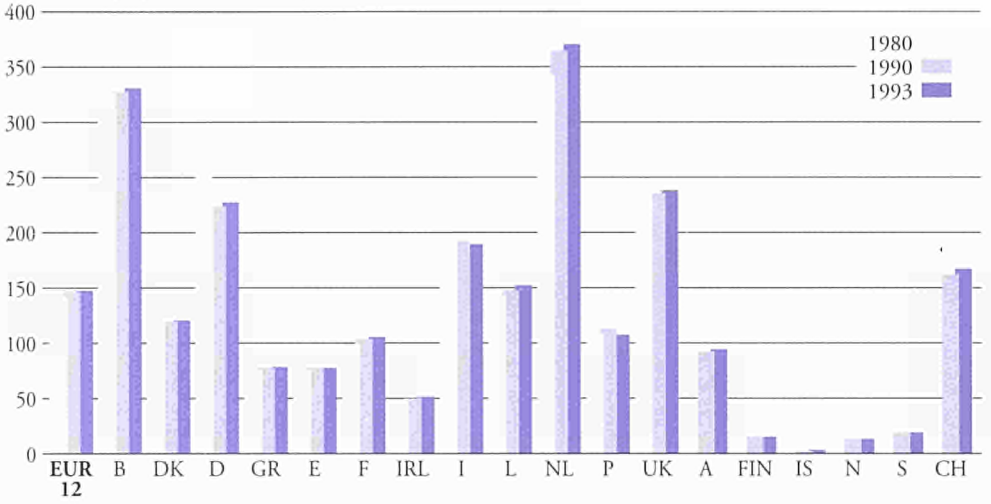


Source: Eurobarometer.

The population density is fairly high in the European Union, varying from 51 inhabitants per km² in Ireland to 370 inhabitants per km² in the Netherlands.

The majority of the European population lives in cities, which has implications for land use. Because land is so expensive, people have built high-rise blocks, but since the number of people per family is constantly falling (see the chapters on households, families and housing), the number of dwellings and the size of towns are constantly on the increase.

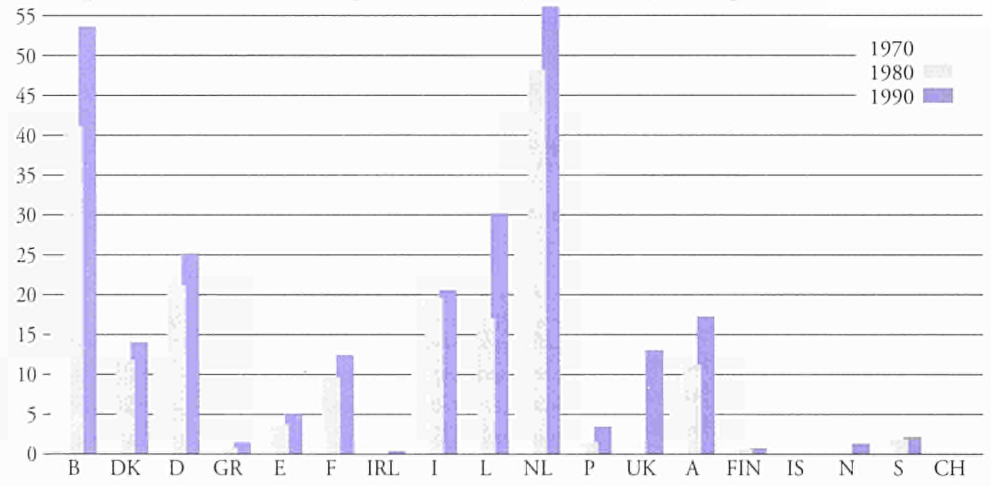
Trend in population density (inhabitants per km²)



Industrial areas have developed with a view to reducing the nuisances resulting from production in residential areas.

The other side of the coin is that people tend to travel further to and from work. Most of this travelling is done in private cars, with the result that industry moving away from towns has led to an increase in traffic volume and hence an additional burden on the environment. Workers also lose between 15 minutes and two hours a day travelling.

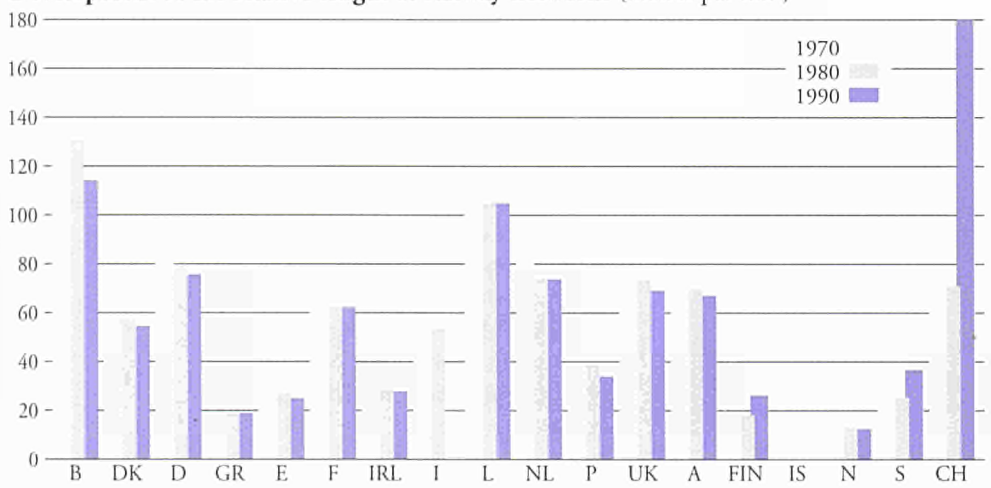
Development of the relative length of motorway networks (metres per km²)



The use of land for tracks, roads and motorways is another burden on the environment.

Road traffic kills several thousand people each year and the number of people injured is even greater (see the chapter on transport). It also reduces the space available for children to play on and they therefore have to look for other places for recreation. Traffic also affects the natural landscape and animal territories with the result that if animals are not killed by drivers they constantly have to move to other places.

Development of the relative length of railway networks (metres per km²)



Between 1900 and 1990, the greenhouse effect increased the average temperature of the world by an estimated 1°C.

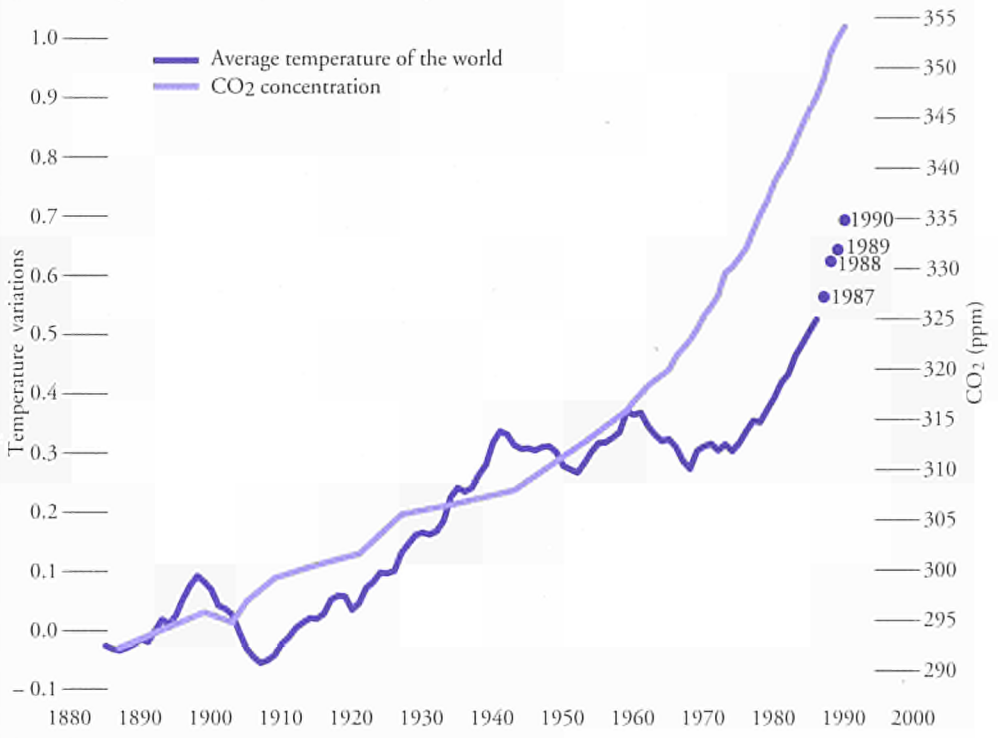
Some of the gases emitted by industry, agriculture and the population are neither harmful nor dangerous, but nevertheless change the composition of the atmosphere and hence influence climate. The main culprits are carbon dioxide (CO_2), produced by the burning of fossil fuels and methane (CH_4), which results from the decomposition of organic materials and animal excrement. Other gases include nitrous oxide (N_2O), which comes from natural sources and agriculture, and chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs). The latter are mainly used for aerosol propellants and in refrigerators and also damage the ozone layer, which protects the earth from ultraviolet rays.

The accumulation of these greenhouse gases traps radiation which would normally escape into the atmosphere. The concentrations of carbon dioxide (CO_2), the main gas responsible for the greenhouse effect (over 50% of the total greenhouse effect), have increased substantially — by 10% in the lower atmosphere between 1900 and 1970 and by the same amount again over the next 20 years. This results in an overall increase in temperature.

Some of the CO_2 emissions are absorbed by a natural process — photosynthesis. However, deforestation in Europe and above all in the world as a whole results in a reduction of the regulatory function of forests and hence affects the increase in the CO_2 concentration.

Climate change models suggest that the Member States of the European Union are likely to experience a rise in temperature in the coming years, with average annual temperatures increasing by 1.5°C to 2.5°C by 2050.

World-wide increase in temperatures and CO_2 concentration
(reference year 1880 = 0, variation in °C)



Source: Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Jones & Wigley, CRU/East Anglia.

Climatic changes resulting from increased temperatures are likely to have a wide range of socio-economic effects.

It is estimated that the level of the sea will rise by 100 mm by the middle of the next century. Together with an increase in storms, this will result in an increase in coastal erosion, a greater risk of flooding in low-lying coastal regions, and hence expenditure for drainage and protection against the sea. Storm water can also cause extensive damage and as a result of changes in land cover, storm water flows rapidly into the rivers, which cannot cope efficiently with all this water at once. This results in floods in the catchment areas with serious resultant damage.

In order to deal with the problem of climate change, man must reduce CO_2 emissions.

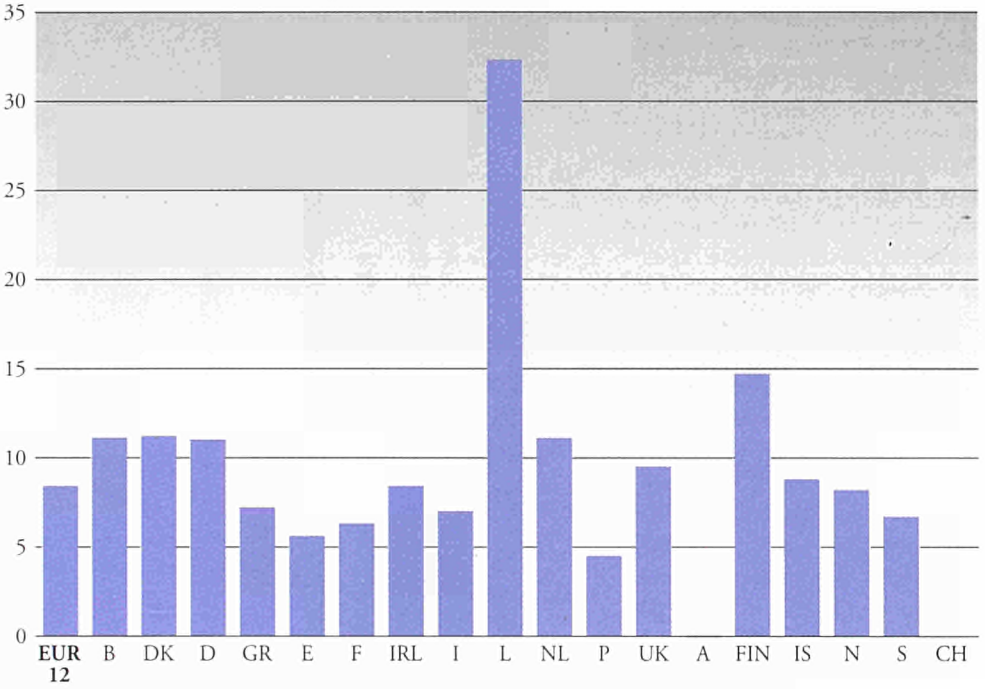
The European Union has undertaken, as an initial step, to stabilize its emissions at the 1990 level by the year 2000. Since this effort cannot be restricted to industry, the European population should cut down its use of private vehicles, which will have implications for several areas of economic life (petrol consumption, motor maintenance, tourism, etc.).

Air pollution means the presence, in the ambient air, of polluting substances in quantities or concentrations which are harmful to human, plant and animal health, dwellings and other property.

These substances, be they gases, solids or liquids, originate from emissions from natural sources (such as volcanoes or lightning) and human activities (use of fossil fuels, agriculture and animal rearing, industry etc.). This pollution results in odours and dirt, hampers visibility, attacks clothing, buildings and works of art, affects crop growth and may contaminate industrial processes and hence reduce the quality of products.

The toxicity of the agents emitted ranges from non-toxic, such as CO_2, to highly toxic, such as the dioxins in the fumes from incineration plants.

CO_2 emissions in 1993 (tons per inhabitant)



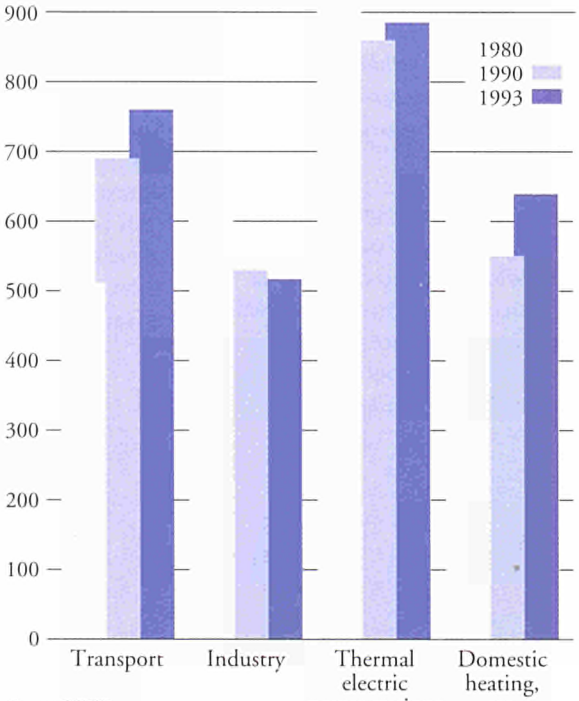
NB: CO_2 emissions are estimated on the basis of fuel consumption in a given country. The figures for Luxembourg are high because the population is small and sales of oil (in the form of petrol, which is subsequently exported) are high.
Sources: OECD and Eurostat estimate.

Approximately 6.5% of the world population lives in the Member States of the European Union and produces around 14% of the total world CO_2 emissions.

These emissions result directly from the consumption of energy, which is constantly increasing. In 1990, the average (weighted) consumption of energy in Europe was around 2.95 tons of oil equivalent (toe) per inhabitant, ranging from 1.54 toe/inhab. in Portugal to 9.3 toe/inhab. in Luxembourg. Consumption increases towards the north, in line with the climate and standard of living. In 1993, average CO_2 emissions were around 8.4 t/inhab. in the European Union as a whole, ranging from 4.5 t/inhab. in Portugal to 32.3 t/inhab. in Luxembourg.

Per capita emissions are not proportional to energy consumption, since in the northern countries other fuels (mainly natural gas) and hydroelectric power are also used.

Development of CO_2 emissions by source, EUR 12 (million t)

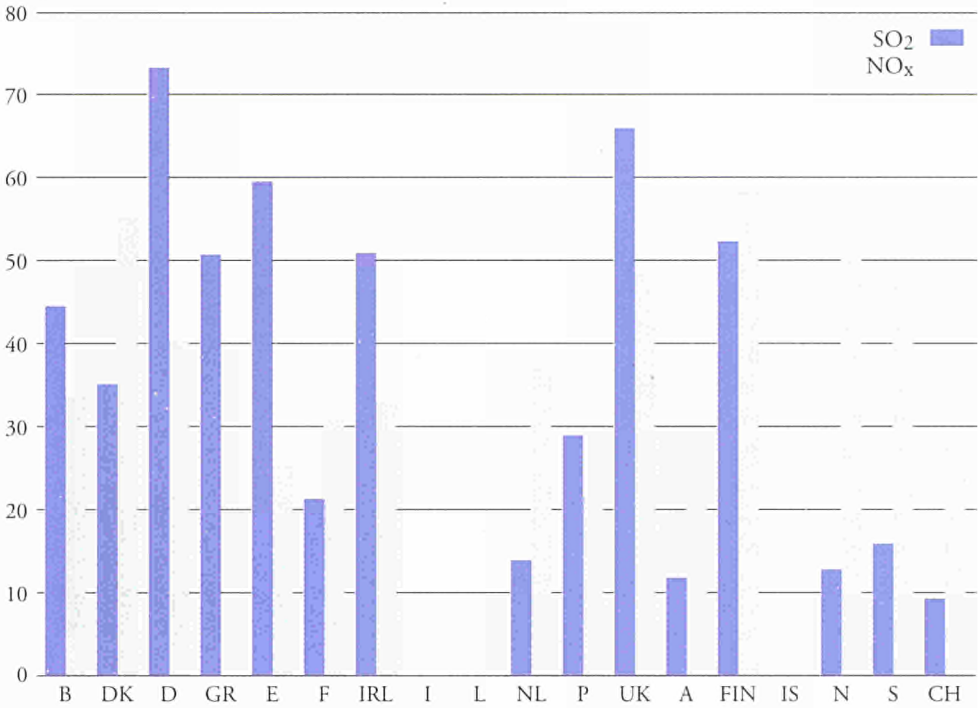


Source: OECD.

Sulphur dioxide (SO_2) is one of the atmospheric pollutants of which emissions have decreased since 1970.

In the past, SO_2 was one of the main substances responsible for winter smog in large cities. However, since the 1950s, SO_2 emissions have been reduced substantially. The changeover to oil products and natural gas — which contain less sulphur — for heating purposes has contributed to an improvement in the situation in towns. At the same time, industry has, under new legislation, introduced structural changes. It has installed pollution monitoring/control equipment and built higher chimneys so that the pollutants will be more widely dispersed. Thanks to these efforts, the concentration of SO_2 in the atmosphere nowadays has fallen to half the level in the 1950s. Nevertheless, the situation is not totally satisfactory.

SO_2 and NO_X, emissions in 1990 (kg/inhabitant)

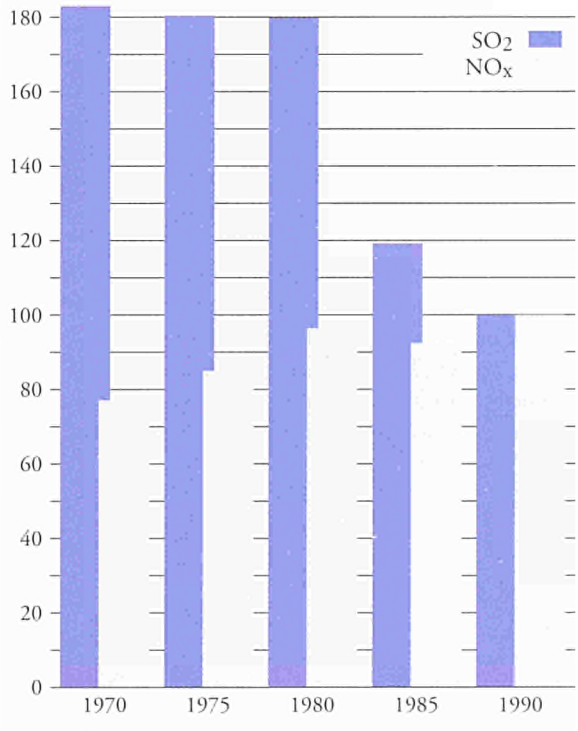


NB: No data are available for Italy, Luxembourg and Iceland.

Emissions of oxides of nitrogen (NO_X) another atmospheric pollutant, have increased in recent years.

Nowadays, urban smog results more from pollution by oxides of nitrogen, which are also combustion products, found mainly in vehicle exhaust gases. Since the volume of road traffic has doubled since 1970, the level of pollution has also increased, particularly in urban areas. Concentrations in urban areas fluctuate depending on the time of day, the highest levels being reached during the morning and evening rush hours. The only way of reducing this nuisance would be to reduce traffic and hence the use of private cars.

Development of emissions of SO_2 and NO_X, EUR 12 (1990 = 100)



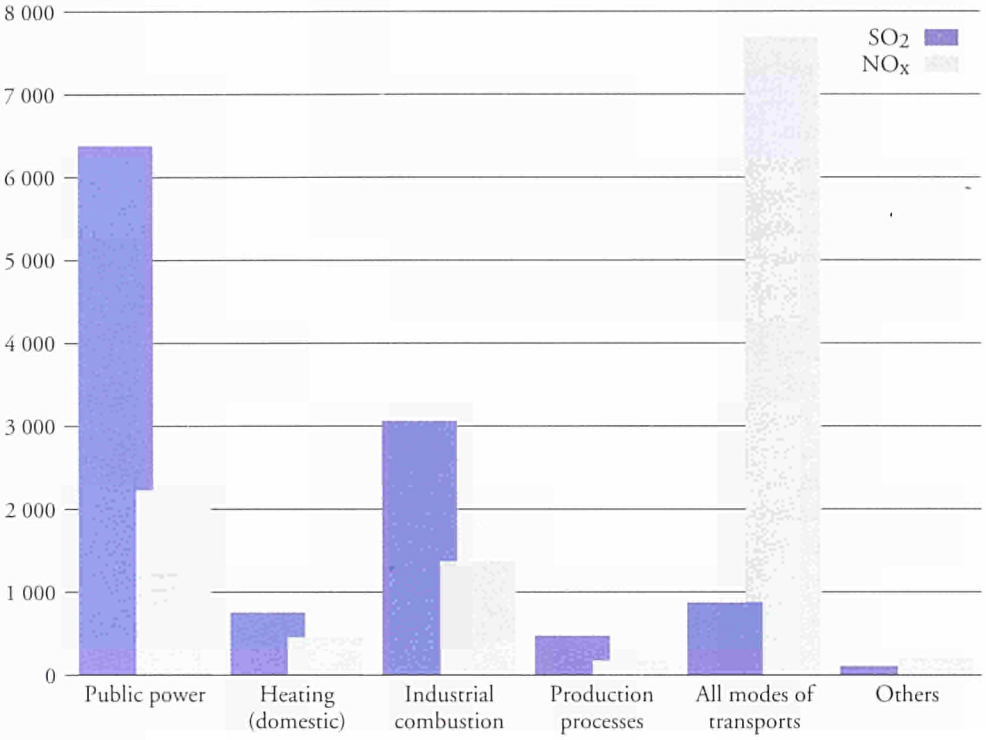
In summer, oxides of nitrogen, under the influence of sunlight, contribute to the production of ozone.

Ozone is a very reactive gas and therefore directly affects the respiratory system. Sensitive people are advised to stay at home or to keep physical efforts to a minimum. Certain countries have started to restrict the use of private cars during periods of summer smog. Obviously, pollution of this kind, which affects people's health and freedom, has social effects.

A large number of atmospheric pollutants also present serious health risks.

Lead emissions, for example, resulting from traffic and which have declined since the introduction of lead-free petrol a few years ago, have been associated with hyperactivity and learning problems among children. Benzo-a-pyrene and benzine, both of which are present in exhaust gases, are known carcinogens. Pesticides used in agriculture are examples of rural air pollution, which particularly affect the flora and fauna. Flue gases from incineration plants also contain dangerous compounds and attempts are being made to control them. However, these methods are far from straightforward and affect the cost of waste treatment to be borne by the consumer.

SO_2 and NO_X emissions by main sources, 1990, EUR 12
(in mio kg)

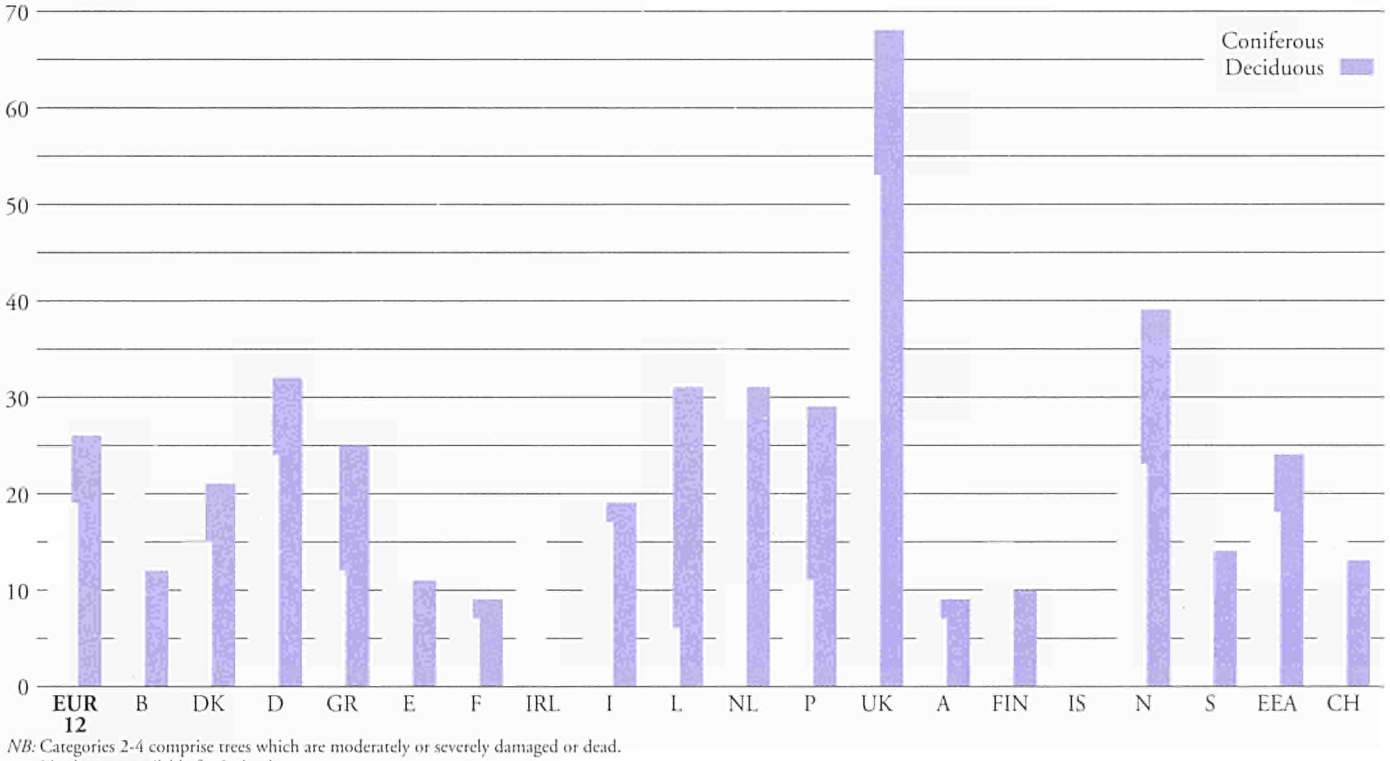


Source: Corinair.

Acid rain and deposits form an environmental problem.

The acids produced by emissions of sulphur dioxide and oxides of nitrogen are deposited on the ground or are brought by rain. The damage to buildings — particularly medieval buildings constructed of materials with a high lime content — and statues is a well-known phenomenon. Restoration is difficult if not impossible. In the case of dwellings, damage is to gutters and roofs, etc. (particularly of zinc), and this has direct effects on the cost of living. Acid deposits destroy plants, water courses, lakes and the soil. Forests are particularly vulnerable since trees actively eliminate acids from the atmosphere. A large proportion of the forests in central Europe have been destroyed, probably because of acid rain. However, other factors, such as the drop in the ground-water level, epidemics and serious attacks by insects may also play a part in this process.

Defoliation, 1992 (percentage of trees in categories 2-4)

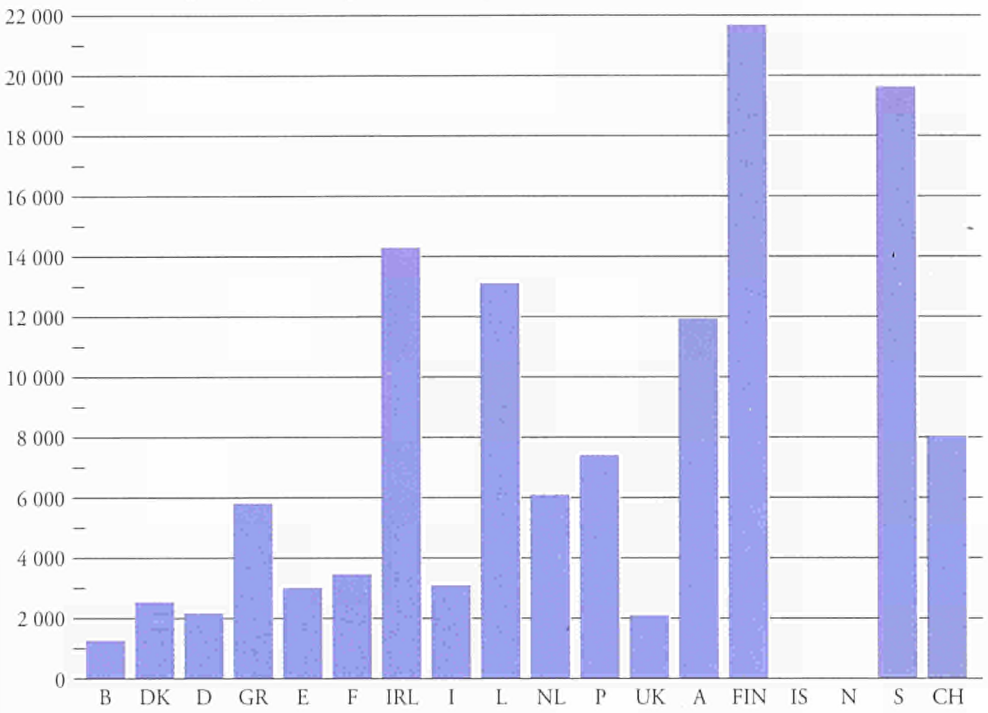


NB: Categories 2-4 comprise trees which are moderately or severely damaged or dead.
No data are available for Iceland.
Source: Unece/EC.

Water is vital for man and his environment.

Water is necessary for consumption, irrigation and cooling (in, for example, thermal or nuclear power plants and numerous industrial processes). It is also used as a solvent, a means of transport, for fishing and for recreation. All of these uses make different demands on the quality of the water, which results in a conflict between the various uses.

Water resources per capita, long-term average (m³/inhabitant)



NB: Norway: > 92 400 m³/inhabitants; Iceland > 659 000 m³/inhabitants.

Availability of fresh water varies throughout the European Union depending on the geology, the climate and human activities.

Human activities have a great influence on the availability of resources. In the past, most rain water passed through the soil before being led off via the rivers or becoming available for extraction as drinking water. Since man has started to cover some of the ground (with concrete or asphalt) and construct drainage networks, water is led off quickly to the rivers, and does not find its way into the ground water as before.

Industrial and agricultural activities result in the pollution of water, which can then no longer be used as drinking water without major treatment.

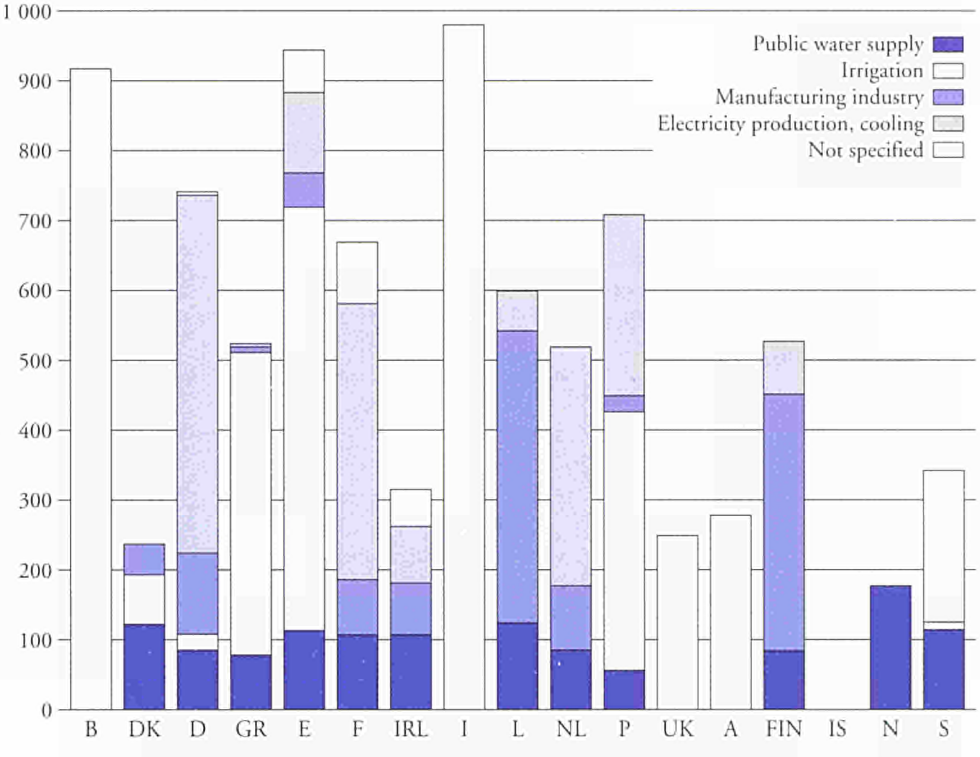
Several processes are required for the supply of water of a reliable quality and not everyone finds the final result satisfactory (because of chlorination). For this reason, some people buy bottled mineral water for drinking, which costs between 10 and 100 times more than tap water. Sales of mineral water are taken into account in the growth of the economy.

The availability of water has a major influence on consumption.

In places where water is readily available, consumers use more of it. Domestic consumption varies widely from one Member State to another, from 100 l/day/inhab. in Portugal to 300 l/day/inhab. in Sweden. These figures are not strictly correct as they also include a certain amount of water supplied to trade and industry. It is very difficult to separate out domestic consumption proper from public supply.

A comparison of the total amounts of water extracted per capita shows that in the south of Europe enormous quantities are used for irrigation whereas in the north more is used for industry and for cooling purposes in electricity generation. Since the available figures are not comparable, extreme caution is advisable when making comparisons.

Water extraction by main activity, 1990 or closest available year (m^3/inhabitant)

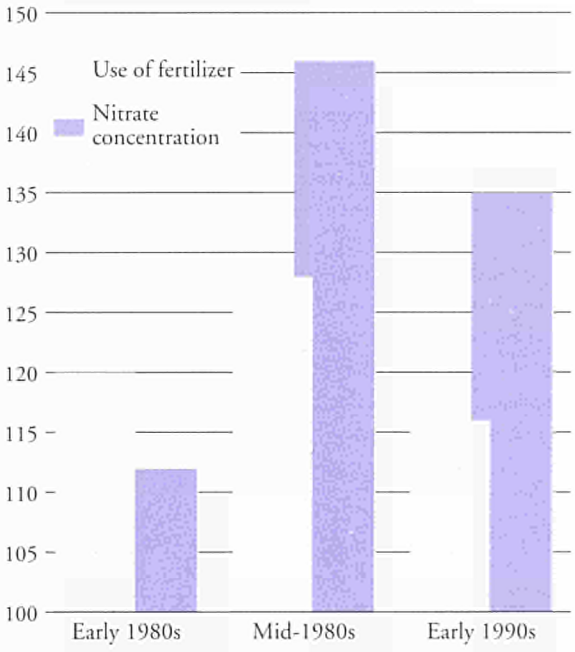


Ground and surface water are exposed to pollution from industry and agriculture.

Industry, particularly (petro) chemicals, leather and textiles, and heavy industry have resulted in considerable pollution consisting among other things of large amounts of organic materials and metals. This has resulted in an oxygen deficiency and high concentrations of heavy metals in rivers such as the Ruhr and the Rhine. However, in recent years, structural changes in industry together with Community legislation have contributed to reducing these emissions. The investment required for these reductions have affected product prices.

Agriculture has become a major source of water pollution in recent years since, in order to produce profitably, farmers have to intensify production and use fertilizers (artificial, liquid and semi-liquid), which contain nitrates and phosphates. A fairly large proportion of the fertilizer applied is still there at the time of harvest while the rest seeps into the ground water. Fertilizers have contributed to a general increase in the nitrate concentrations in several water courses and aquifers and it is thought that, even if agricultural practises change immediately, it will be over 20 years before concentrations in ground water and surface water are reduced.

Nitrate pollution of water courses and use of fertilizers (index 1975 = 100)



Source: European Commission, 1994.

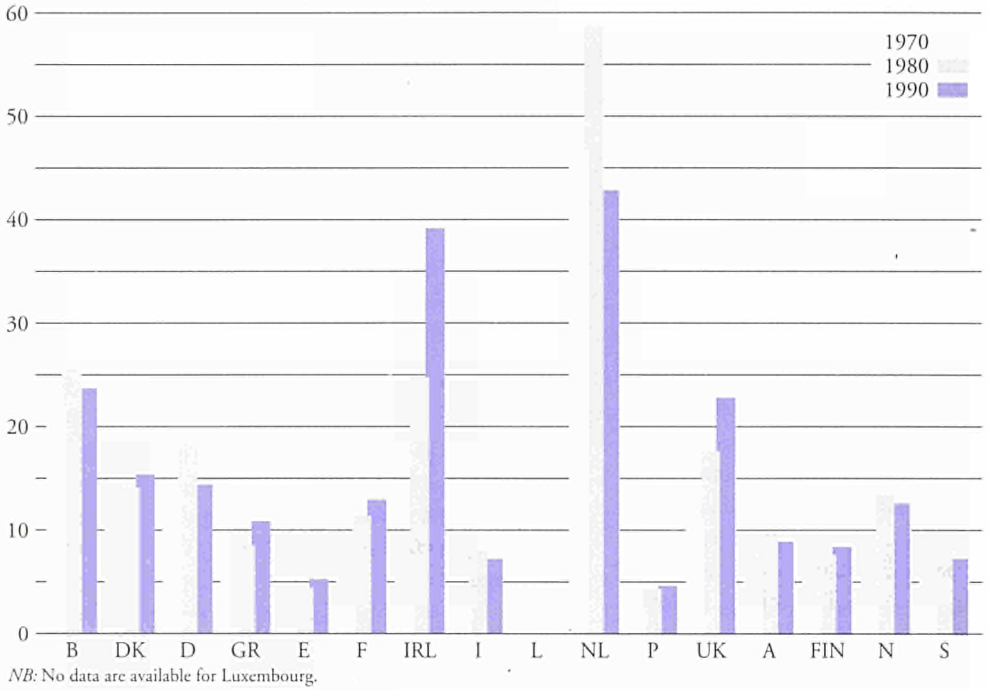
A variety of policies have been introduced with a view to combating water pollution, and particularly the problem of eutrophication.

Eutrophication is the enrichment of water with nitrogenous and phosphatic nutrients (in the form of nitrates and ammonia, and phosphates respectively). This leads to accelerated growth of algae and a reduction in the oxygen content, ultimately making the water unusable for various purposes. Eutrophication results from agricultural activities and discharges of urban waste water. The elimination of these nutrients by purification plants has become a priority.

The extension and modernization of drainage systems and the construction of purification plants have made it possible to reduce domestic and industrial pollution.

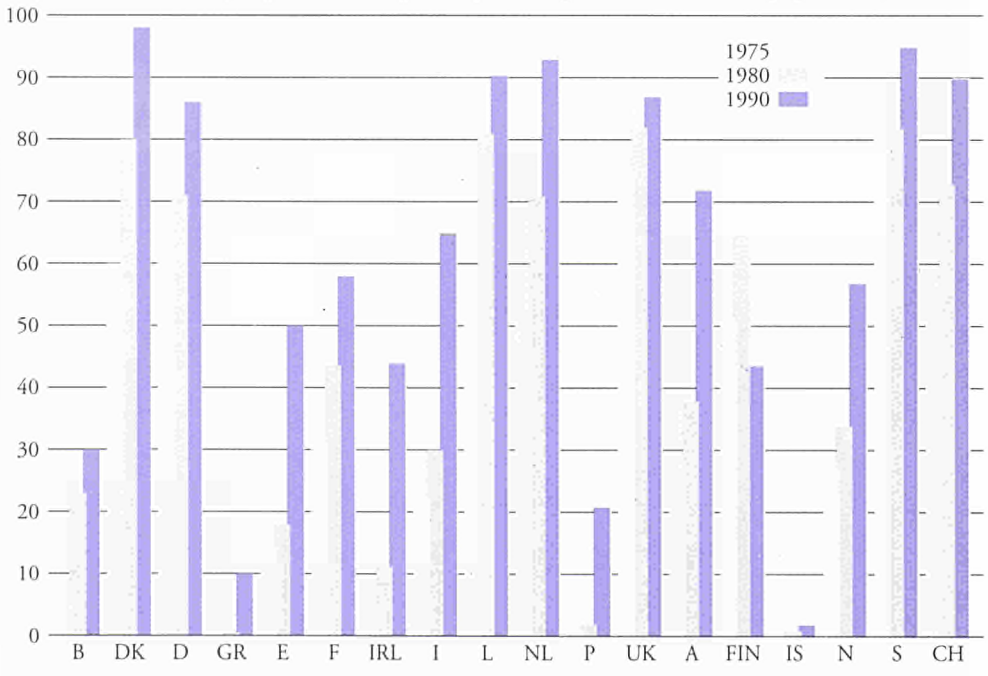
Since the beginning of the 1990s, around 90% of the European population has been connected to a drainage network, around 70% of which are connected to a purification plant — the latter figure varying between 10% and 95% depending on the country. The connection rates to drainage systems and purification plants tend to be lower in the southern countries (a mere 10% in Greece and 21% in Portugal in 1990) compared with the northern countries (over 95% in Denmark). Water treatment is therefore a top priority, representing 30 to 50% of total environmental expenditure in the majority of the Member States of the European Union. In general, these investments are financed from a water-treatment tax payable by industry and by the general public. The 'polluter-pays' principle is not yet applied in all the Member States.

Use of fertilizers with nitrogen (t nitrogen/km²)



NB: No data are available for Luxembourg.

Population served by a purification plant (percentage of the residential population)



The data on waste should be viewed with caution since, in spite of the establishment of definitions in European legislation, data collection is not yet harmonized and the comparability of data is still fairly low.

Between 1980 and 1990 waste production in the EEA increased from the already high level.

Waste results from households, commercial activities (municipal waste), industry, agriculture, etc. Very generally speaking, increases in the quantities produced reflects the general trend in consumption.

European legislation on waste is aimed at avoiding, or where this is not possible, reducing the production of waste and monitoring the processing or final storage of toxic waste. Another aim of Community policy is to promote recycling. This calls for changes in production processes and consumer choices regarding, for example, packing. Municipal waste includes household refuse, bulky waste and garden waste, as well as similar waste produced by small commercial and industrial businesses. This waste is generally speaking collected by the municipal waste-disposal services.

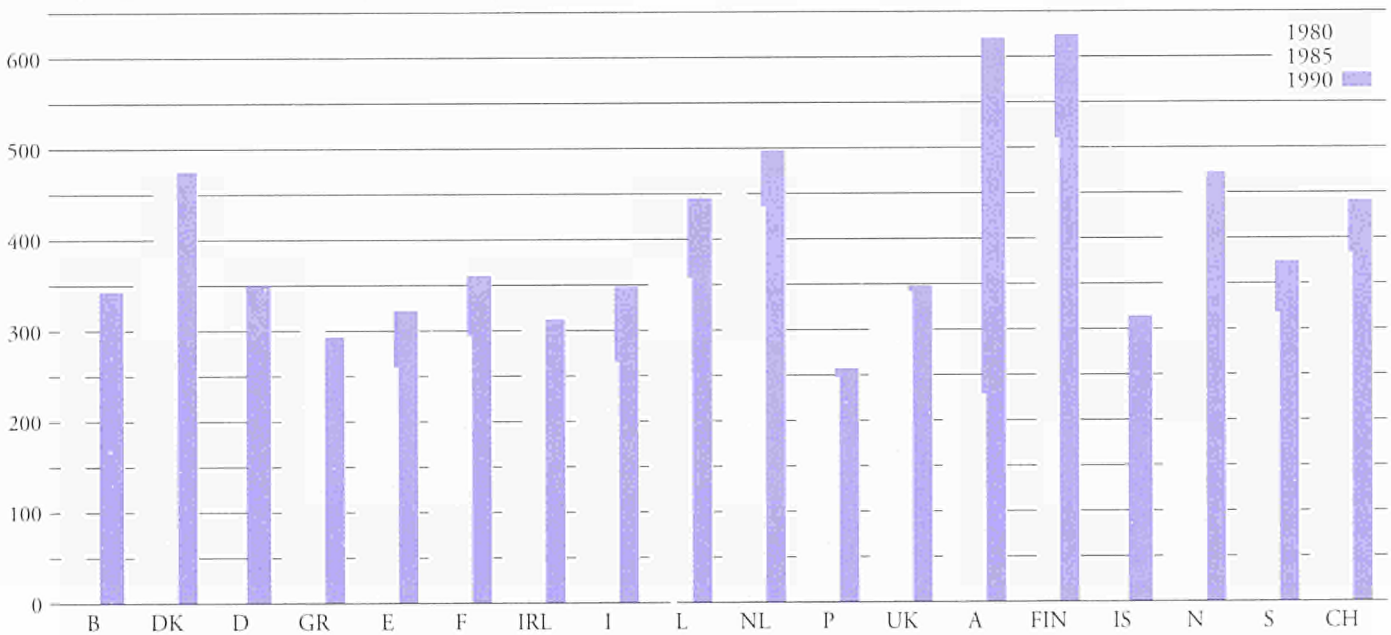
The introduction of cheap non-returnable packing was one of the main reasons for the increase in volume of waste, as can be seen from the quantities and composition of municipal waste. In 1990 the per capita production of municipal waste varied from 260 kg in Portugal to almost 500 kg in the Netherlands. These waste-production levels would, however, appear to be in correlation with the GDP.

The costs for disposing of waste are high: 30% of the total environmental expenditure of the Member States.

Municipal waste is treated in a variety of ways, the oldest and most common being land filling. Around two thirds of the domestic waste in the European Union are disposed of in this way (over 90% in the United Kingdom, Ireland and Greece). This method of disposal is increasingly coming in for criticism because of the space it takes up and the danger of polluting soil and ground water. Increasing use is being made of incineration, particularly in the densely-populated industrial countries. Some 19% of waste is incinerated (95% in Luxembourg). However, incineration is a major source of air pollution. Another way of reducing the waste volumes is to convert some of the municipal waste into a product which is useful for agriculture and horticulture by means of composting. Of the total waste in the Union 5% is composted and 9% is eliminated by other means.

Because of the increase in the quantities to be handled, the changeover to more sophisticated methods of treatment and the increase in land prices is resulting in ever-increasing costs for waste collection and disposal. The consumer is having to pay more and more to get rid of his rubbish. Since the cost of public cleaning is spread over the population by means of municipal taxes, there is a genuine risk that certain people will prefer to dump their waste illegally — as can be seen in various places.

Per capita production of municipal waste (kg/inhabitant)



Dangerous waste, such as radioactive and certain chemical waste, requires special treatment.

In order to minimize the environmental and health risks resulting from dangerous waste, Member States are obliged under European legislation to process and dispose of such waste in a controlled fashion within their territory. Although representing only 1% by weight of total industrial waste, treatment costs for such account for 20% of the total waste-treatment costs.

Recycling and re-use are the preferred methods of dealing with certain industrial waste which cannot be eliminated.

The main products for recycling are metals, which are easy to process. For example, 21% of the aluminium, 35% of the copper and 41% of the lead used were recovered at the end of the 1980s.

In 1990, 8% of the municipal waste of the European Union was recycled.

A number of countries have organized separate collection of glass and paper with a view to recycling. Separate collection is one of the ways of reducing the volume of waste. For the citizen, it means an 'obligation' to sort out his waste before handing it over to the collection services or taking glass and paper waste to collection points. A more advanced stage is the separate disposal of organic waste (e.g. kitchen and garden waste) and other waste in different containers, followed by separate collection by the waste-disposal services. In some countries separation at source is obligatory and a place has had to be found for containers in residential areas.

The highest recycling rates for paper and cardboard in 1990 were in Spain and the Netherlands (over 50%) and the highest rate for glass was in the Netherlands.

Although recycling is on the increase in the majority of countries, the difficulties and costs involved in separating and collecting the materials, together with the frequent instability of the market in the materials concerned and reluctance on the part of consumers, can often present obstacles to recycling.

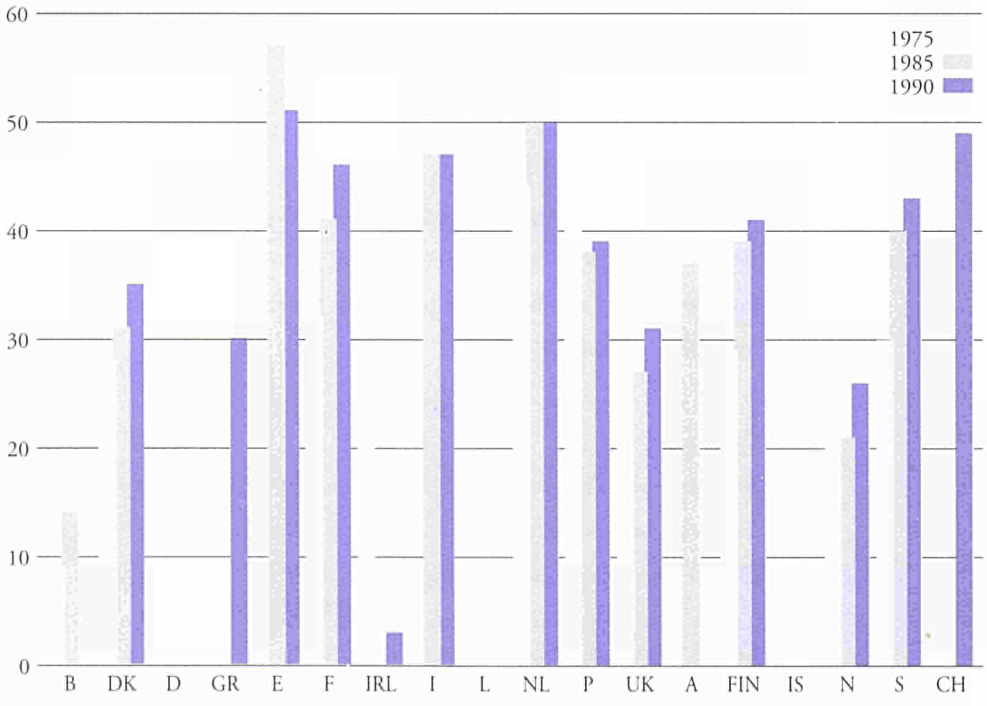
It should be pointed out that the recycling of glass does not include re-use of glass (particularly glass bottles) collected under the deposit system, since after cleaning these, glass receptacles are refilled and put back into circulation (a glass receptacle of this kind may be recycled 10 times before disappearing into the glass container).

Recycling of certain types of waste in the European Union (at the end of the 1980s)

	Consumption (1 000 t)	Recovery (1 000 t)	Recovery (%)
Aluminium	6 432	1 314	21
Copper	2 811	981	35
Lead	1 322	540	41
Chromium	781	50	6
Nickel	258	53	21
Zinc	1 910	388	20
Mercury	3 144	1 540	49
Cobalt	6 604	744	11

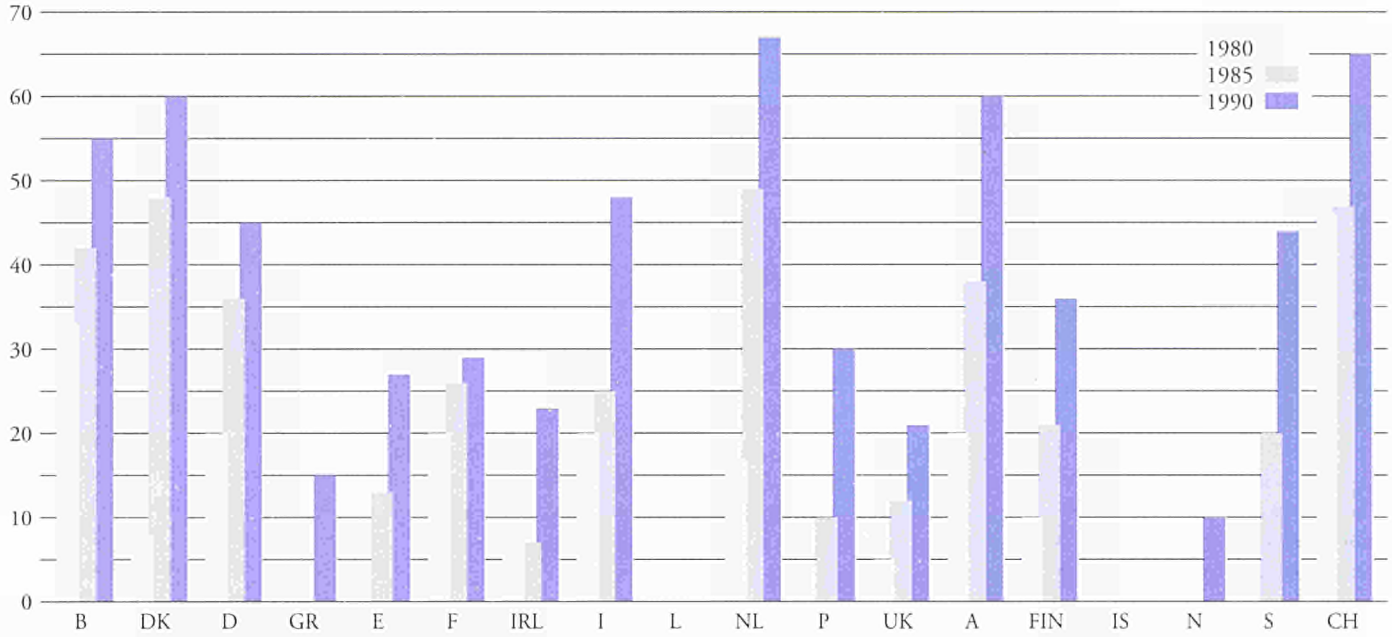
Source: OECD.

Paper recycling (in kg per inhabitant)



NB: No data are available for Luxembourg and Iceland. The data contain derived estimates.
Germany: 1990 data refers to former German Democratic Republic. Norway: 1990 data refers to 1987.
Spain and Portugal: 1990 data refers to 1981 and 1991.

Glass recycling (in kg per inhabitant)



NB: No data are available for Luxembourg and Iceland. The data contain derived estimates. Germany: data refers to former German Democratic Republic; rate is based on total sales. Denmark, Belgium, France and Austria: 1985 data refers to 1983

Source: OECD.

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LIVING CONDITIONS

TRANSPORT

European citizens are travelling more and more, by air and rail as well as by car, but car travel still accounts for by far the greatest number of kilometres covered.

The number of private cars has increased dramatically in recent decades throughout the European Union and in the EFTA countries.

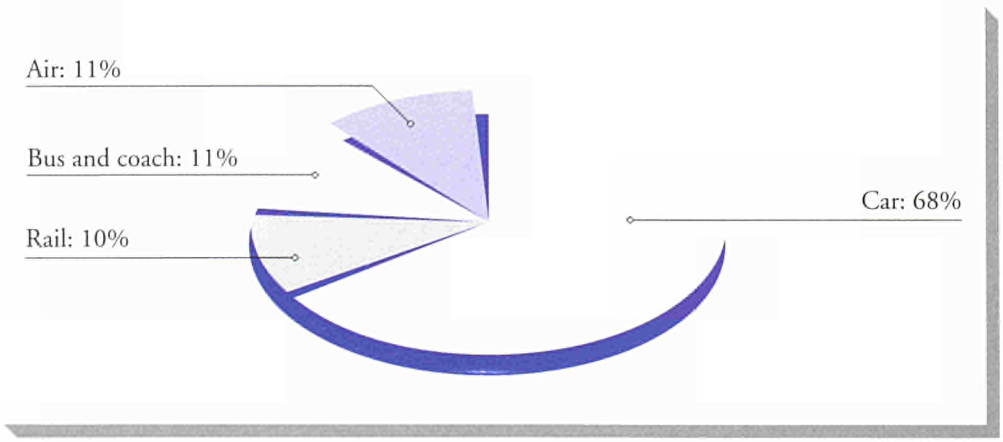
The GDP of the EU countries and the differences in their taxation levels are also reflected in car ownership levels. These factors can influence the number of cars owned by households.

The number of driving licence holders in the younger age groups has soared, particularly in the case of women.

Rail transport is less used than cars, but the last 20 years have seen a rise in the number of rail passenger-km.

The car is still the form of travel in the European Union, but car use also has negative consequences.

Travel in 1990 (EUR 12)



NB: Air, bus and coach travel, calculated in passenger-km; car travel calculated in car-km.
Sources: IRF (1989 and 1992); IUR (1990-92); IUPT (1992).

Europeans have travelled more and more since 1985, especially by car.

In the countries of the European Union, in 1990, the number of kilometres travelled by car represented 68% of total kilometres for all modes of transport and shows an annual average increase of about 5% since 1985.

Passenger-km in the EU countries

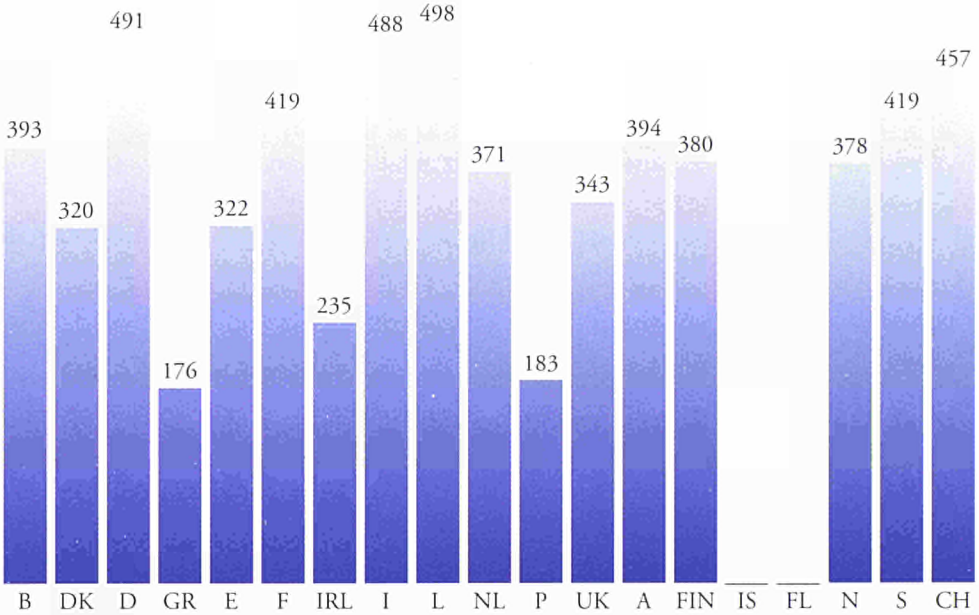
	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Passenger-km by rail	100	100.56	101.51	105.66	108.10	108.99
Passenger-km by bus	100	100.00	102.86	104.51	105.32	108.50
Car-km	100	104.83	111.31	117.39	122.12	127.72
Total	100	103.59	108.85	114.05	117.93	122.58

Sources: IRF (1989 and 1992); IUR (1990-92); IUPT (1992).

In 1990, the number of passenger-km and the number of kilometres travelled by air each represented only 11% of the total number of kilometres travelled.

The rate of increase in rail passenger-km was less than 1% per annum from 1985 to 1987 but increased more rapidly in 1988 (+ 4%) and 1989 (+ 2.30%). This rate of growth fell back to 0.82% in 1990, whereas the number of bus and coach passenger-km rose by 3.02% in the same year.

Number of registered cars in 1991 (per 1 000 inhabitants)



NB: Iceland and Liechtenstein: data not available.
Source: IRF (1992).

Although the car is the dominant mode of transport, there are differences between the Member States.

The level of private car ownership ranges from 176 vehicles registered per 1 000 persons in Greece to more than 490 in Germany and Luxembourg.

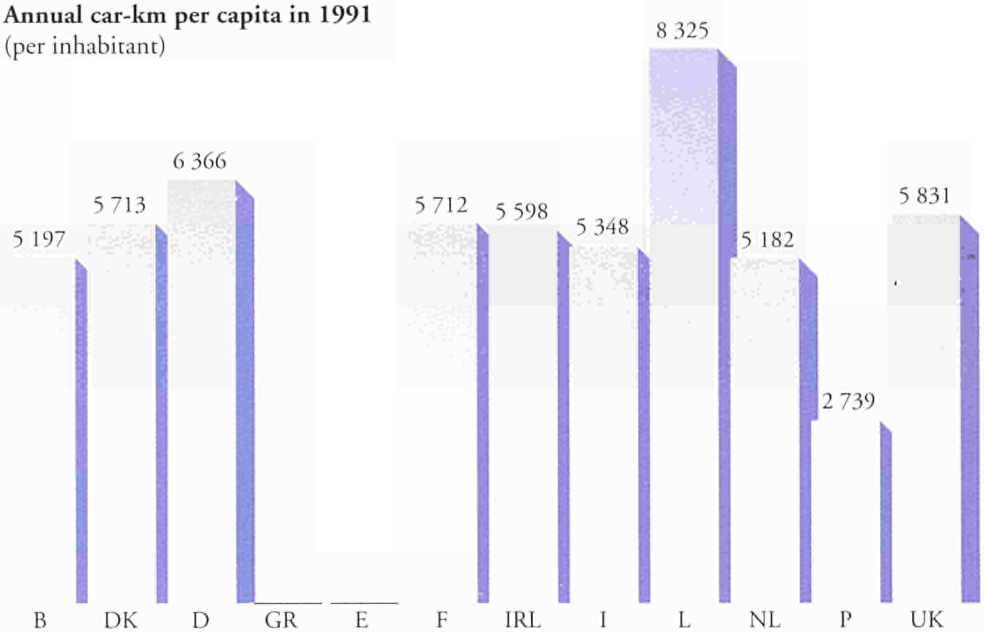
Throughout this chapter, the data for Germany relate to the former Federal Republic of Germany.

The number of kilometres travelled can be a function of the number of private cars owned.

This is the case in Germany and Luxembourg, but there are certain exceptions.

Both Denmark and Ireland have a rather low private car ownership level but mark up a high number of car-km per capita.

Annual car-km per capita in 1991
(per inhabitant)



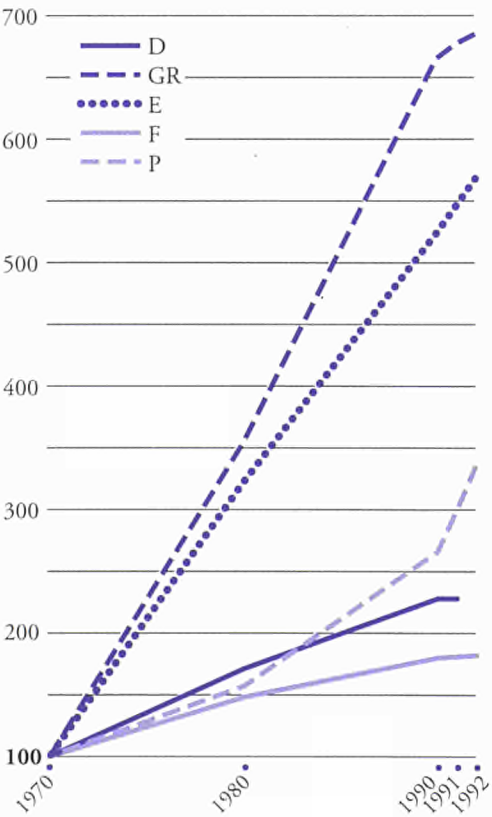
NB: Spain and Greece: data not available.
Source: IRF (1992).

During the last two decades, car ownership has increased substantially.

The EU countries fall into two groups in this respect. The first group, including Portugal, Greece and Spain, had low car ownership levels in the 1970s, and in these countries the rate of increase has been explosive: figures of more than 300% are no exception. The second group comprises the countries which already had high ownership levels, such as Germany and France; but the growth of car ownership was significant even in these countries.

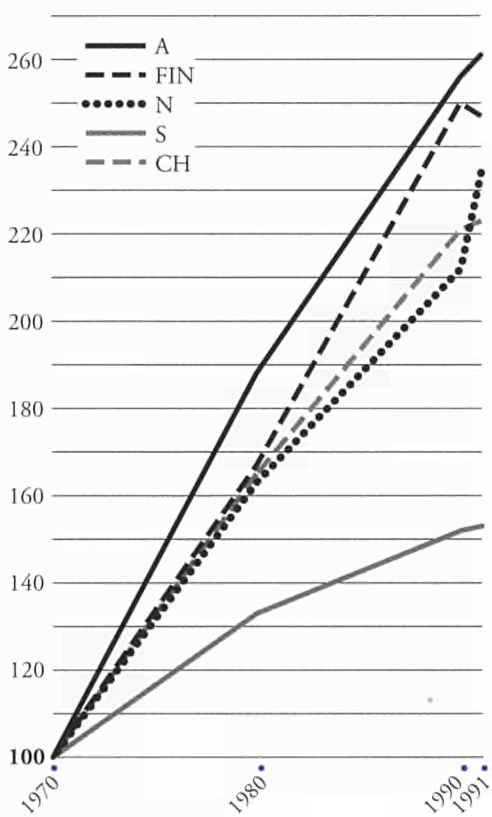
Among the EFTA countries, the most striking rises in car ownership over the period 1970 to 1991 were recorded in Austria and Finland whose rates of increase (161 and 147% respectively) were even higher than that of Germany (128%).

Number of registered private cars per 1 000 inhabitants in EU countries



Source: IRF (1975 and 1992).

Number of registered private cars per 1 000 inhabitants in EFTA countries



Source: IRF (1975 and 1992).

Since 1985, Portugal and Greece have recorded the largest rises in numbers of first registrations of cars.

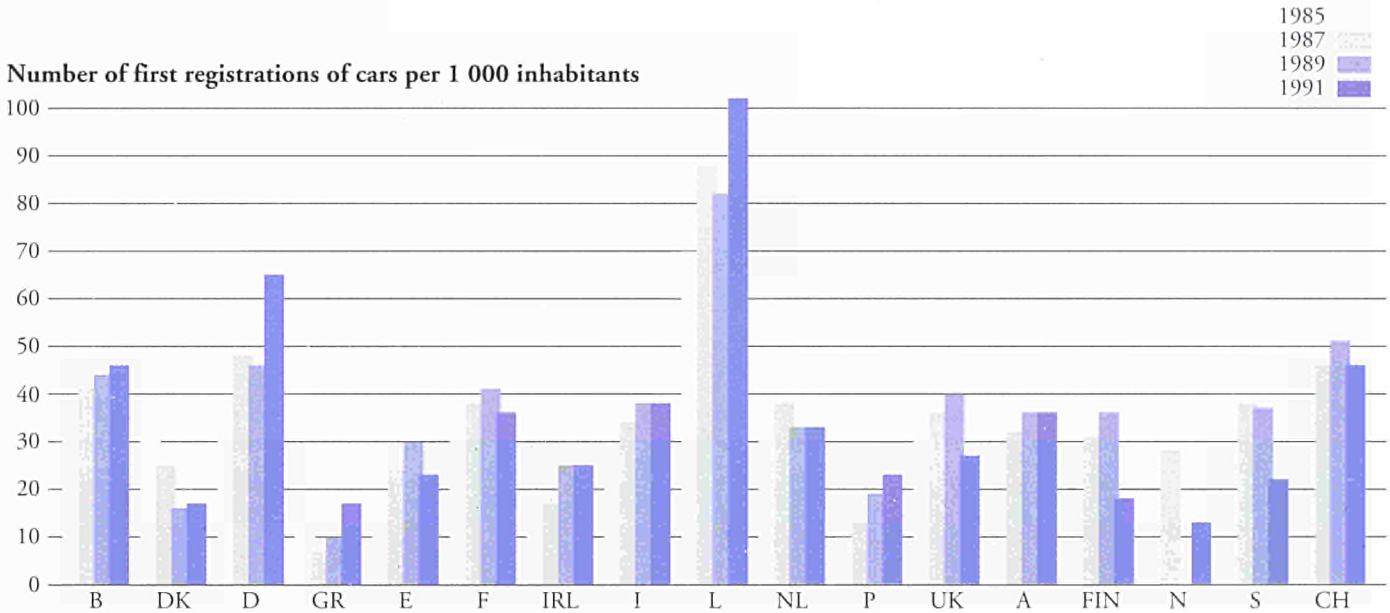
In Spain, purchases of new cars carried on rising between 1985 and 1989 but fell back in 1991. In Denmark, on the other hand, there was a modest rise in the number of first registrations in 1989, after the massive fall in the preceding years. The number of new registrations fell dramatically in Norway, Finland and Sweden in 1991. Luxembourg, Germany and Belgium were the only countries along with Portugal and Greece in which the rise in new registrations continued in 1991.

Some households do not own a car.

They are particularly numerous in Greece and Portugal.

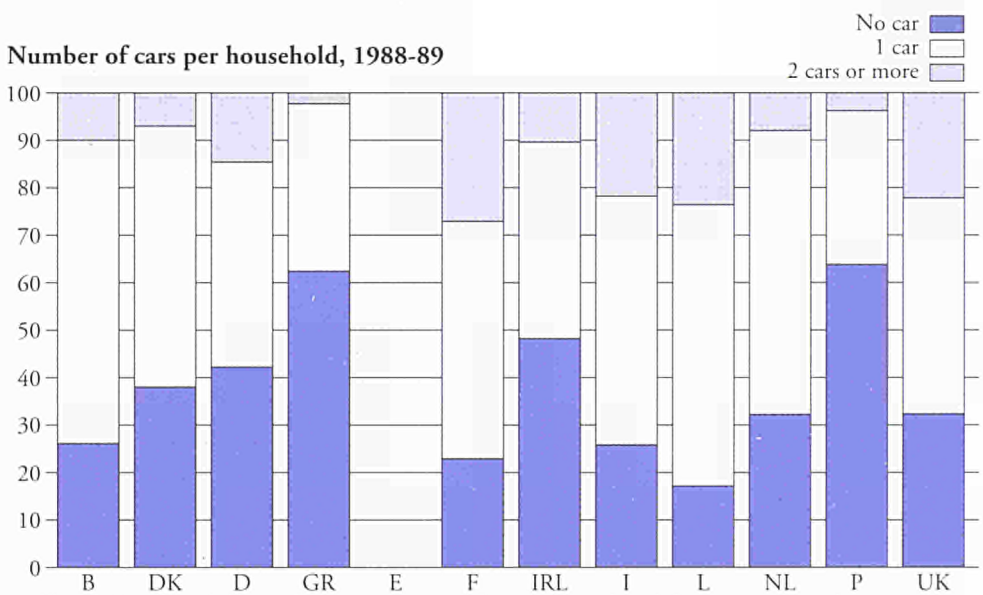
Luxembourg and France are the two countries with the largest number of households owning two cars.

Number of first registrations of cars per 1 000 inhabitants



NB: Liechtenstein and Iceland: data not available; EFTA countries: 1985 data (plus 1989 data for Norway) not available.

Number of cars per household, 1988-89

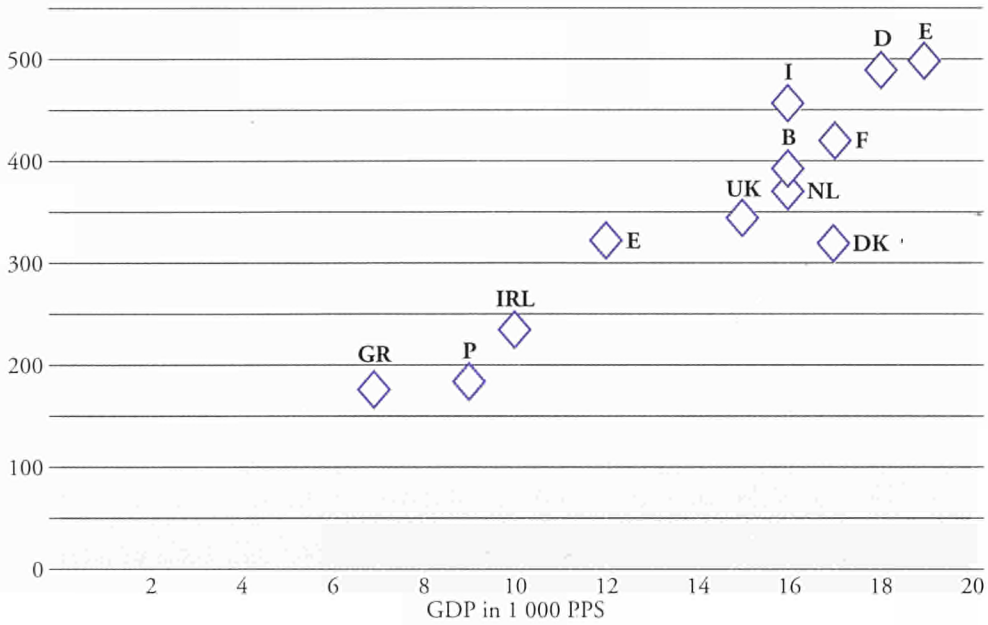


NB: The definition of household varies from country to country. Certain countries also include institutions. Spain: data not available.

The economic wealth of a person or a household, expressed here as GDP, can be seen as one of the main explanations for car ownership.

To accept the implication that GDP per capita is a good indicator of average individual income is tantamount to assuming that there is a positive correlation between income and car ownership; but Denmark and Italy are two notable exceptions.

Number of registered cars per 1 000 inhabitants as a function of GDP, 1990



VAT rates

B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	A	FIN	IS	N	S	CH
19.5	25	15	18	15	18.6	21	19	15	17.5	16	17.5	20	22	24.5	20	25	6.5

NB: Since May 1993 for the EU countries; since 1994 for the EFTA countries.
Source: European Commission, DG XXI.

Car taxes affect both car ownership and car use.

Car purchase taxes, road-fund taxes, VAT and import taxes on cars affect the number of cars per household. Higher taxes may be reflected in the proportion of smaller and cheaper cars in the individual countries.

Inside the European Economic Area (EEA), VAT rates range from 15% in Germany, Luxembourg and Spain to 25% in Denmark and Sweden.

The number of driving licences has risen even more than the number of cars.

The possession of a driving licence is obviously a precondition for the purchase of a car and it therefore seems realistic to assume there will be a further rise in car ownership levels in the next few years.

Number of driving licences per car and percentage of population (aged 18 and over) with a driving licence, 1990-91

Country	Licences/cars	Percentage with driving licence	
		Women	Men
Germany	1.3 [1]	51.3	81.5
France	1.5 [2]	66.8	89.9
Netherlands	1.5 [2]	60.8	52.4
United Kingdom	1.4 [1]	48.0	78.0

Sources: Korver and Jansen (1991), Credoc (1993).
[1] 1990.
[2] 1991.

Driving licence holdership shows a peak for the younger age-groups.

These groups will probably carry on driving as they grow older; so it is reasonable to expect car travel to increase among the older age-groups in due course.

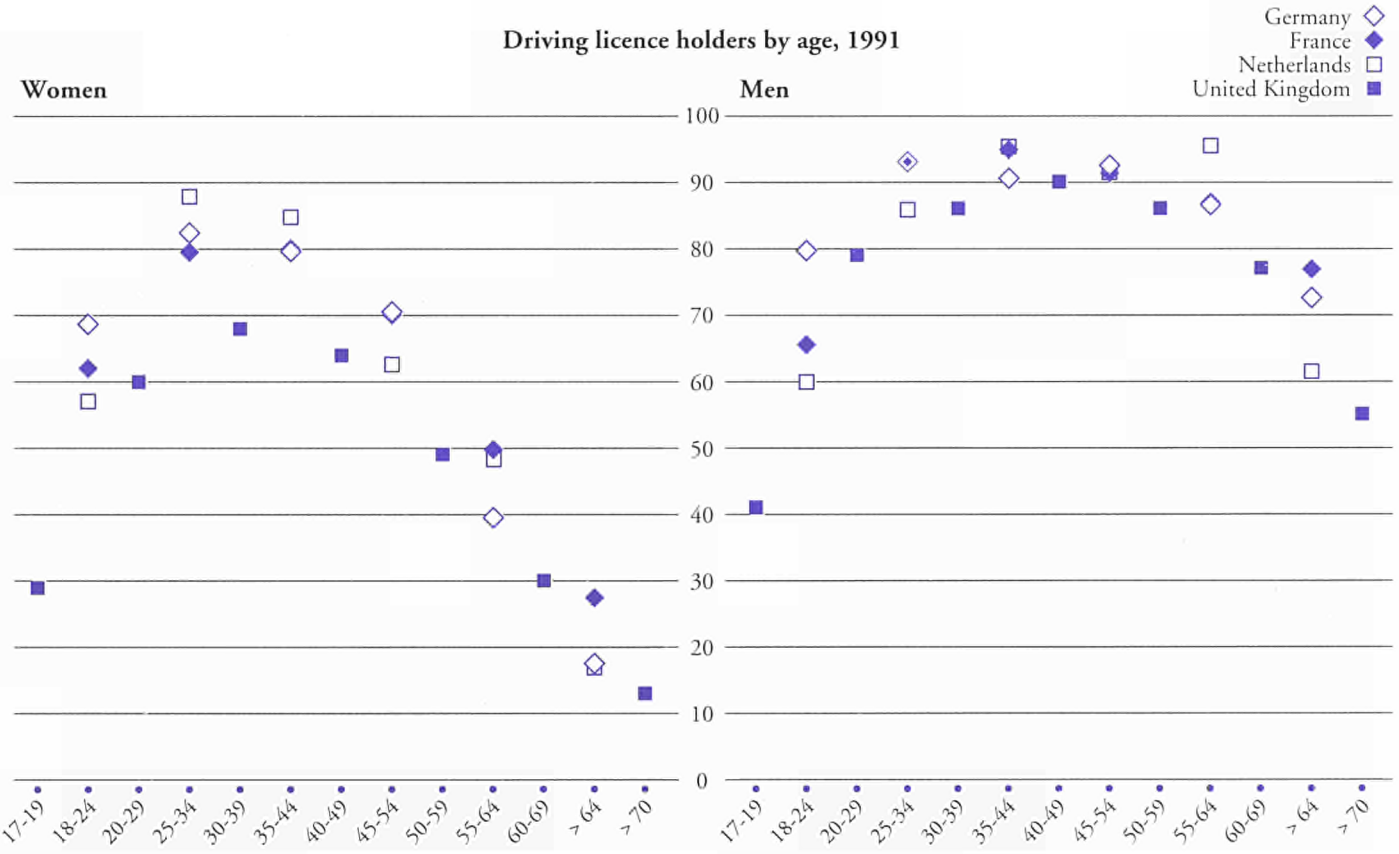
There are more male than female licence holders.

The gap seems to be narrowing in the younger age-groups, however, mainly as a result of the changing role of women in society in general and, in particular, as a result of their increased participation in the labour market.

In the EU countries other than the United Kingdom and Ireland (where it is 17), the minimum legal age for obtaining a driving licence is 18.

In some countries, however (Belgium and France), driving practice may be acquired from the age of 16, as young people are encouraged to drive with an adult.

Driving licence holders by age, 1991



Source: Korver and Jansen (1991).

Source: Korver and Jansen (1991).

The train is also an important mode of transport in the countries of the European Union.

There are striking variations in the levels of train use in the different countries.

Frequent use of a car is not automatically linked with infrequent travel by train.

High levels are found in Denmark, Luxembourg and Portugal. Greece, Spain and Ireland are notable for their very low rates of train use.

Passengers carried by rail

(per 1 000 inhabitants)

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
1970	:	21	23	16	1	:	12	3	6	29	14	:	14
1975	:	19	17	146	1	:	12	5	7	30	13	:	13
1980	12	17	25	18	1	4	13	5	7	30	14	23	14
1985	13	15	26	17	1	5	14	6	6	30	14	22	12
1990	:	12	28	16	1	7	15	7	:	26	17	23	13

Passenger-km by rail

(per 1 000 inhabitants)

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
1970	:	784	677	614	:	:	803	196	603	603	611	:	545
1975	:	780	563	602	171	:	960	280	654	648	619	:	538
1980	643	707	742	622	151	359	1 009	301	701	674	626	619	538
1985	669	667	881	700	174	415	1 120	289	654	624	620	562	524
1990	:	655	942	683	195	397	1 124	347	:	529	377	575	577

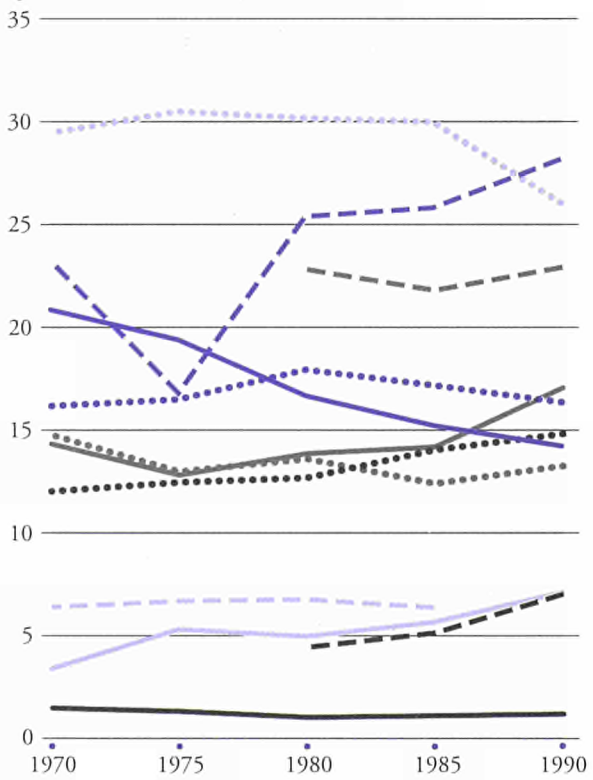
France has a very high rail passenger-km rate.

The advent of the high-speed train (TGV) could have played a very significant role in this context. In most countries, train passenger-km remained more or less constant between 1970 and 1990. The downward trend in the number of passenger-km in the Netherlands, in spite of an increasing number of passengers, could be due to more frequent but shorter-distance travel.

Trends in rail passenger numbers vary in the Member States.

In Ireland, the Netherlands and Denmark, train use is increasingly popular, whereas the numbers of rail passengers have fallen over the past 20 years in Belgium, the United Kingdom and Greece.

Number of passengers carried by rail
(per 1 000 inhabitants)



Because no reliable data for bus and coach transport are available, public transport will mostly be limited here to train use.

Air passenger transport boomed in the European Union during the 1980s.

The yearly average rate increased by approximately 6% between 1980 and 1990.

Three cities (London, Paris and Frankfurt) alone accounted for 61% of the number of scheduled intra-European passengers and the same three are by far the busiest on domestic routes. There is a strong concentration of international air travel in Europe.

Number of passengers using the main EU airports
(direct transit is counted once only)

(1 000)

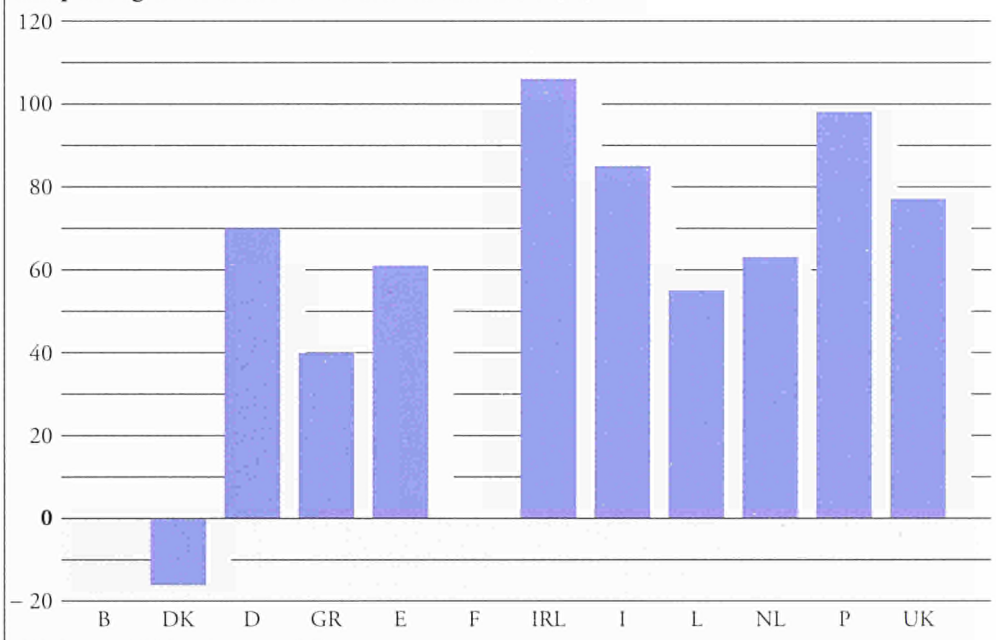
Airport	1980	1991	1992	Increase in % between 1980 and 1992
London [1]	37 837	61 040	67 562	79
Paris [2]	26 446	45 296	50 369	91
Frankfurt	17 650	27 317	30 707	74
Rome [3]	12 090	17 084	19 681	63
Amsterdam	9 715	16 542	19 145	97
Madrid	10 495	16 292	18 372	75

Source: Schiphol Airport Authority (1992 and 1993).
[1] Including Heathrow, Gatwick and Stansted.
[2] Including Orly, Charles de Gaulle and Le Bourget.
[3] Including Fiumicino and Ciampino.

In Ireland, the number of air passengers rose by approximately 106% between 1980 and 1990.

Over the same period, air passenger numbers increased by more than 50% in every EU country apart from Greece, and, especially, Denmark (where it fell by approximately 16%).

Air passenger variations between 1980 and 1990 (%)



NB: France and Belgium: data not available.

Each year, about 50 000 people are killed in traffic accidents in the EU countries.

Cars or trucks are involved in almost every fatal accident. Every year, the population-equivalent of a medium-sized town is wiped out by traffic accidents. Rail and air travel account for a very small percentage of these statistics.

In 1990 the number of persons killed in road traffic accidents in Portugal was the highest in the European Union.

In Germany, on the other hand, the number of persons injured was very high. In Belgium and Luxembourg, the number of persons killed was also very high in relation to the population.

In Spain, Greece and Portugal the number of persons killed in traffic accidents has steadily increased since 1975.

In the northern European countries, on the other hand, there has been a steady fall in the number of deaths due to traffic accidents in Germany and the Netherlands since 1970 and in Belgium since 1980.

Breakdown of accidents by road-user category:

Accidents involving
Cars: 49.5%
Pedestrians: 22.9%
Motorcycles: 8%
Mopeds: 5.2%
Others: 8.7%

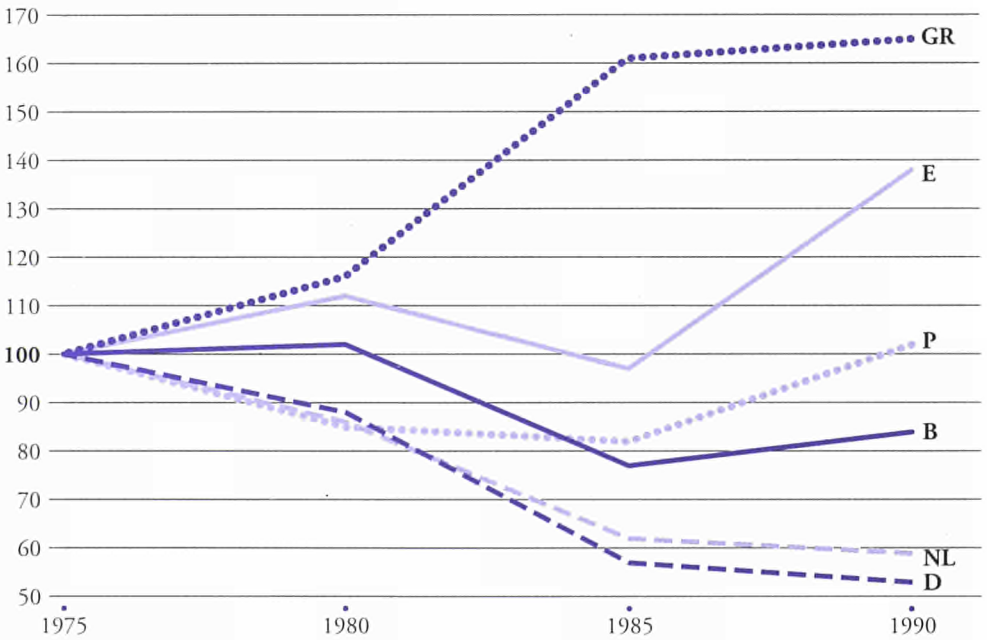
Road accident victims in 1990

(per 100 000 inhabitants)

	Killed [1]			Injured		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
B	20	30	10	865	1 063	672
DK	12	17	8	207	262	153
D	12	19	7	702	867	572
GR	:	:	:	:	:	:
E	18	28	8	399	562	242
F	18	27	9	398	510	292
IRL	14	20	8	269	327	204
I	11	18	5	383	528	246
L	19	28	9	465	613	323
NL	9	13	5	348	429	269
P	25	:	:	680	:	:
UK	9	14	5	605	739	478

[1] The definition of 'persons killed' differs from one country to another, so some of the figures are estimates.

Persons killed in road traffic accidents



Source: ECMT (1992 and 1993).

The European Commission has started a project named CARE for collecting all types of data on road safety. This data source aims not only to give information about road accidents but also to create a platform for international cooperation.

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STANDARD OF LIVING

CONSUMPTION AND INCOME

Two items are crucial for any description of the standard of living of the citizens of the European Union: income and expenditure. Income figures in this chapter refer to a single socioeconomic group: manual workers in manufacturing (whose incomes are more readily measurable). Data on household consumption are provided by family budget surveys.

Over half of household budgets is spent on food, housing and transport. In the south European countries, food accounts for the largest share of consumption and in the north housing takes the lion's share.

Non-manual workers and the self-employed consumed more than manual and agricultural workers in 1988 and, between 1980 and 1988, the consumption of retired persons and of others who were not economically active rose considerably.

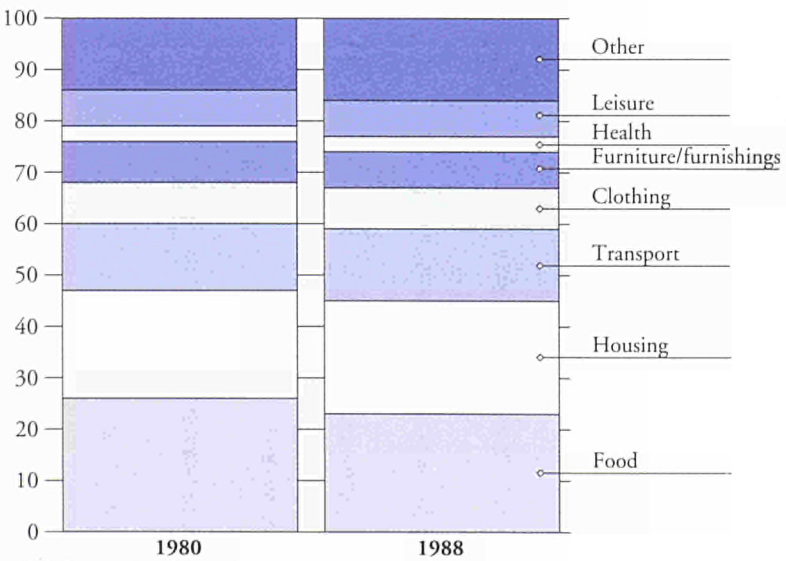
The gap between the different levels of consumption depending on household incomes narrowed during the 1980s.

The level of amenities showed an improvement in the 1980s. The two items most commonly found in homes were still television sets and washing machines.

Between 1980 and 1992, the prices of consumer goods rose in the European Union. Germany and the Benelux countries had the most stable prices and the south the highest inflation.

Regardless of whether or not a household includes children, its standard of living is influenced by its disposable income — among other things, net earnings.

Pattern of consumption[1] (%)



[1] With the exception of Portugal.

In this chapter, the figures for Germany refer solely to the old *Länder*.

The standard of living is highest in Germany, France and, at the top of the list, Luxembourg,

where consumption is more than 9 300 PPS per adult equivalent.

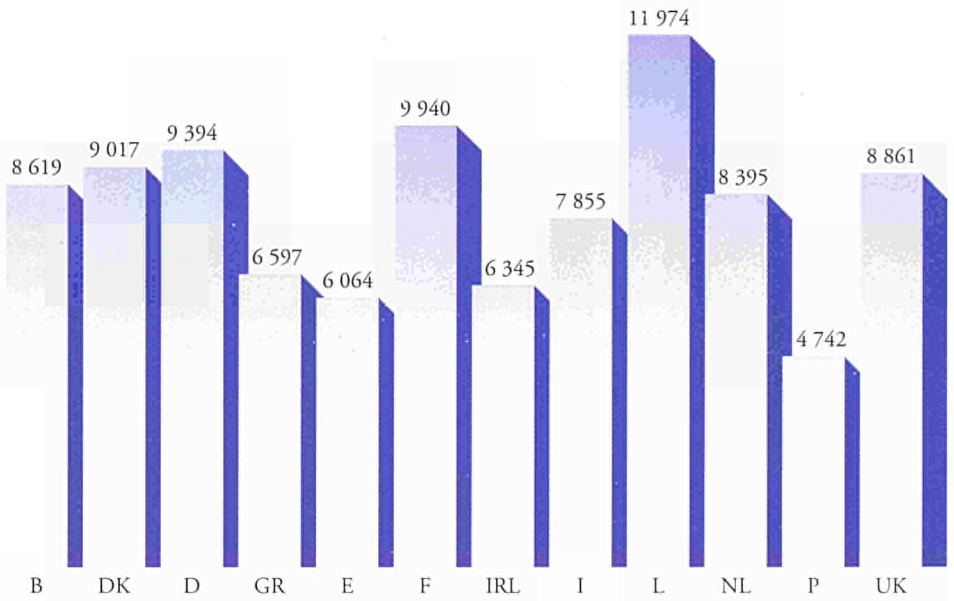
In 1988, the Spaniards, Irish and Greeks consumed an average of between 6 000 and 7 000 PPS (purchasing power standard) per adult equivalent, i.e. two-thirds of the average consumption in the Netherlands, Belgium, Denmark or the United Kingdom (between 8 000 and 9 000 PPS). Consumption was even lower in Portugal (4 742 PPS), and Italy comes in the middle of the range with consumption of around 8 000 PPS.

Food and housing are the two main consumption categories, swallowing up 23 and 22% respectively of family budgets in the European Union.

Half of the family budgets in Europe are thus still spent on two basic needs. Next come transport services. Households spend twice as much on travel and communications as they do on clothing, furniture and furnishings or leisure-time activities. Communications are now one of the main features of the day-to-day life of Europeans. Health services come fairly low down on the list, and goods and services included in 'other categories', such as restaurants, personal care and tourism, together average 17.3% of total consumption.

An ***adult equivalent*** unit replaces the 'per capita' measure and takes account of household structure, using the following weighting:
first adult = 1;
other adults = 0.7;
children (under 14 years) = 0.5.

Consumption in PPS per adult equivalent, 1988



The largest share of budgets in the southern European countries and Ireland is spent on food (25% or more).

In other countries expenses for housing are taking that place. Clothing is also an important item in southern Europe. The standard of living would seem to be the main factor determining how much of family budgets is spent on these three categories: as living standards rise, food and clothing loom less large and the share of budgets spent on housing increases.

With the other types of consumptions such as health, leisure or other expenditure, national disparities would seem to be due to sociocultural factors peculiar to each country.

Manual workers and farmers and agricultural workers have the lowest level of consumption.

In all countries, manual workers have a level of consumption below the national average. In the agricultural sector, this level varies between 70 and 93% of the average. In all countries, workers in this sector have a level of consumption less than manual workers in industry.

Non-manual workers and the self-employed consume more than the other households.

This difference is apparent in all the Member States with the exception of Denmark, where the level of consumption of non-manual workers is quite low. Generally speaking, non-manual workers on average consume more than the self-employed, except in Denmark, Germany, France and the Netherlands.

Pattern of consumption by country, 1988

(%)

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Food	21	19	18	19	26	29	17	27	25	17	16	33	17
Housing	23	24	31	20	20	19	29	16	19	26	23	14	24
Transport	14	12	16	15	10	13	16	12	17	12	12	16	11
Clothing	8	7	5	7	13	11	6	7	10	8	7	9	7
Furniture	7	7	5	8	8	6	7	5	8	9	7	7	6
Leisure	7	6	7	9	6	6	6	8	6	8	9	4	8
Health	3	4	2	5	4	2	5	1	2	4	2	3	1
Other goods and services	17	21	16	17	13	14	14	24	13	16	24	14	26

Level of consumption (per adult equivalent) of the various socioeconomic categories, 1988

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Average	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Manual workers	90	90	93	84	91	85	101	95	89	73	85	91	88
Non-manual workers	118	116	72	115	125	113	120	131	119	114	109	146	128
Self-employed	116	99	128	129	115	105	124	129	115	107	112	128	98
Farmers and agricultural workers	80	70	85	80	75	76	83	93	81	70	83	70	84
Retired persons and others	90	96	81	93	83	93	90	82	91	99	96	77	79

The actual consumption of retired persons and others who are not economically active rose substantially between 1980 and 1988.

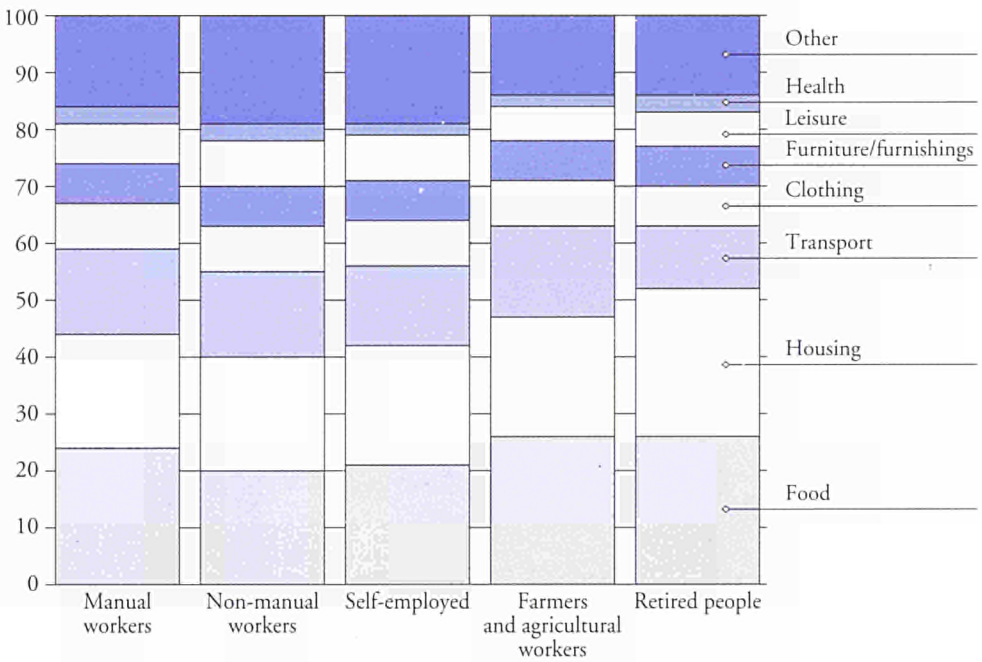
The increase was as high as 51% in the United Kingdom, 41% in Italy and 44% in France. The rise was in every case above average, and even in countries where average actual consumption fell, in this category it increased.

The reason is the increase in old-age benefits (see 'Social protection'), the better health of retired persons and a change in attitudes: elderly persons are increasingly being considered as potential consumers. However, except in Luxembourg, retired persons still consume less than the average even though the gap narrowed during the 1980s.

The pattern of consumption varies little between the various socioeconomic categories, except in the case of food and housing.

The only major differences are in food, which takes up a greater share of the budget of manual workers, farmers and agricultural workers and retired people, and housing, which is a more important item for retired people. Those who are retired spend less on transport, a logical consequence of their becoming less mobile. However, they do not spend more on health than other categories, probably because they are reimbursed by social security schemes.

Pattern of consumption by socioeconomic category, 1988 (EUR 12) (%)



Increase in total actual consumption and the consumption of retired persons, 1980-88

(%)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Total	– 2.6	– 2.6	– 0.4	:	– 5.4	31.9	– 5.1	38.8	:	5.8	:	32.3
Retired persons and others not economically active	12.1	:	9.4	:	18.8	43.9	:	41.2	:	5.9	:	51.2

Income is the variable which best explains the level of consumption within a given country.

A classification of households into four quarters in line with income, from the lowest to the highest, shows that, overall, the consumption of the poorest quarter of households is around half of the national average.

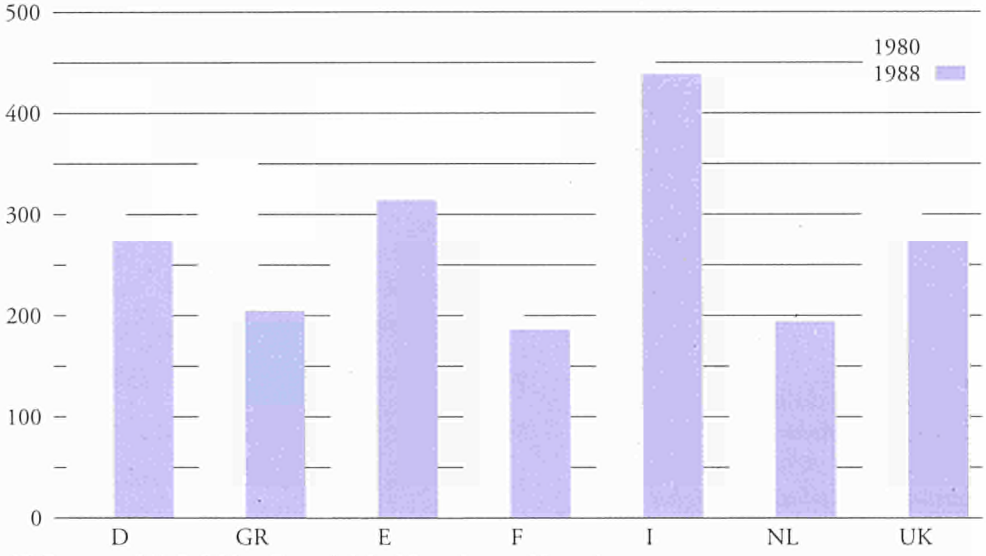
In Italy, however, this group consumes only 36% of the national average whereas in France it is up to 55%. The differences are substantial in every country, reflecting marked inequalities. The 25% of highest-income households consume between 1.5 and twice the national average, with the largest gap in Italy (192% of the average) followed by Spain and the United Kingdom.

Level of consumption by income tranche, 1988

	D	GR	E	F	I	L	NL	UK
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
First quartile	45	51	42	55	36	49	52	46
Second quartile	77	78	75	78	69	76	83	72
Third quartile	110	110	107	102	103	106	111	109
Fourth quartile	168	154	175	159	192	169	153	173

NB: Data not available for Belgium, Denmark, Ireland and Portugal.

Gaps between the consumption of households in the first and the fourth income quartiles, 1980-88 (%)



NB: Data not available for Belgium, Denmark, Ireland, Luxembourg and Portugal.

As a general rule, the gap between the poorest quartile of households and the highest-income quartile narrowed between 1980 and 1988.

This was the case in Germany, Greece, France, Italy and the United Kingdom. The gap narrowed considerably in Greece (where there was a broad disparity at the outset), but less so in Germany. Absolute differences in standards of living were still highest in Italy, where the top quarter consumed over four times as much as the 25% of poorest households. In Spain and the Netherlands, the gap widened, but the Netherlands still had the smallest differences of any country bar France. Differences in living standards became smaller because the consumption of low-income households changed more than that of high-income households.

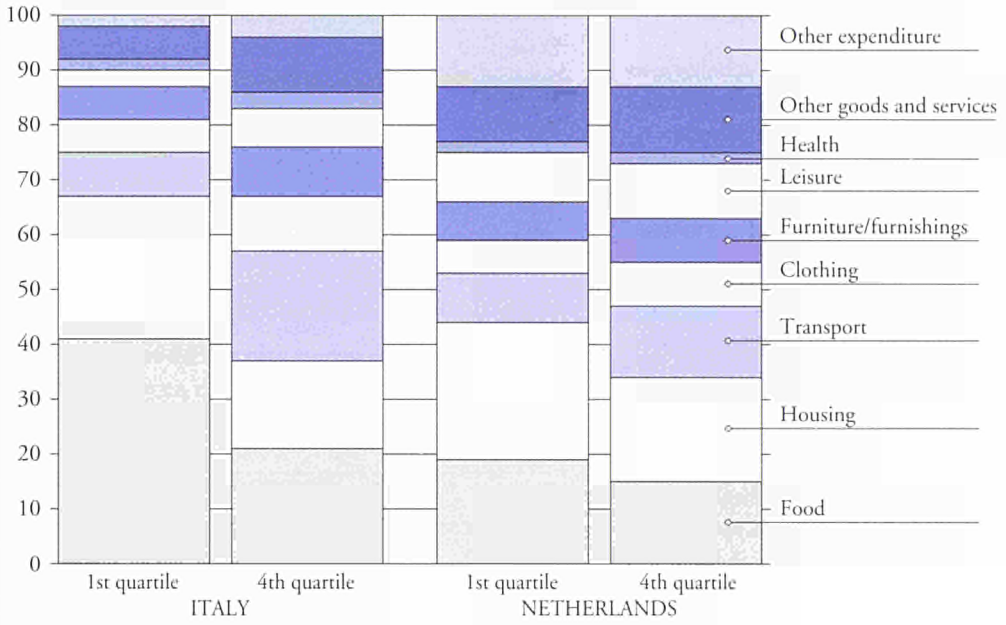
Between 40 and 67% of the budgets of the poorest households is spent on food and housing as against 30 to 45% for the higher-income households.

These two expenditure categories impose the greatest restrictions on the standard of living of the low-income households, leaving less money available for other types of consumption.

The better-off households spend proportionately more on transport, clothing and leisure activities.

They spend twice as much on transport as the low-income households. To a lesser extent, the same is true of clothing, leisure and other types of consumption. Any increases in household incomes are thus more likely to be spent on these items.

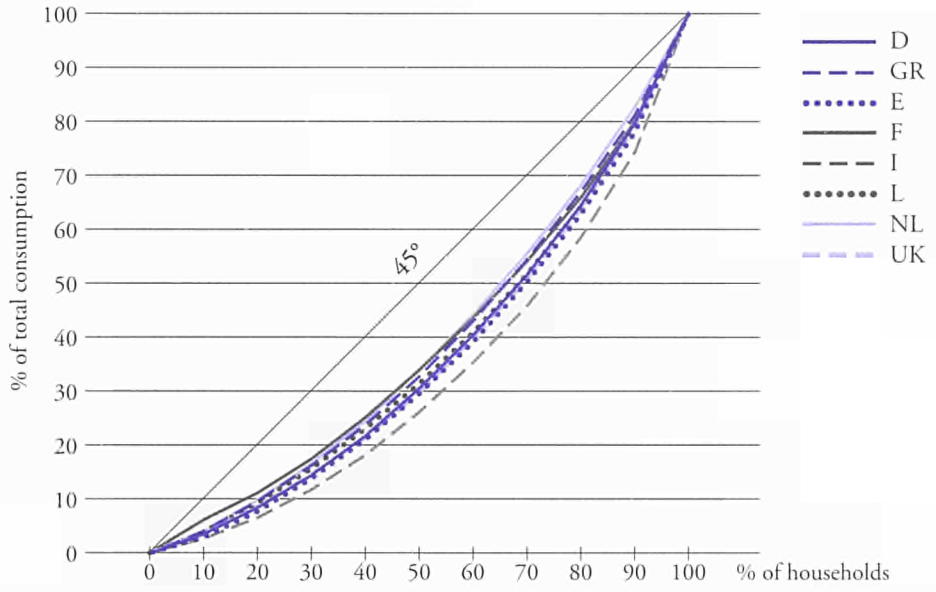
Pattern of consumption by income tranches, using the example of Italy and the Netherlands, 1988 (%)



On average, the lowest-income 50% of households in 1988 accounted for 30% of total consumption, whilst the higher-income half accounted for the remaining 70%.

The inequality was greatest in Italy, and least noticeable in France and the Netherlands. From the bottom of the scale to the 40% of households level, each 10% of households accounts for 5% of total consumption. Each subsequent tenth accounts for a tenth of consumption (10%). In the final 20% tranche (households with the highest incomes), each additional tenth of households adds between 15% and 20% to total consumption.

Concentration of consumption, 1988



The Lorenz curve shows the degree of inequality of consumption against the uniform distribution of total consumption. Since households are classified by income tranche from the lowest to the highest, perfect (theoretical) equality would be represented by a straight line at 45°, and 50% of households, for example, would account for 50% of total consumption. In practice, the more the curve deviates from this theoretical straight line, the greater the inequality of consumption.

Television sets and washing machines are the most common consumer durables in the Union.

In 1988, over 80% of households in every country except Greece and Portugal had a colour television set. In most countries, over 77% of households had a washing machine, but there were lower percentages in Portugal, Denmark and Greece. The figures for dishwashers and video recorders are much lower, and everywhere outnumbered by hi-fi systems.

Households in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom have most home-entertainment equipment: colour television sets, hi-fi systems, video recorders and computers. In the United Kingdom, the number of colour TV sets and videos is particularly striking: almost all households have a television and half have videos.

The Germans and Luxembourgers are the best equipped with household appliances.

However, although more households (relatively speaking) have washing machines in some other countries, only these two countries have a high percentage of ownership of all three items — washing machines, dishwashers and freezers

National peculiarities may be due to sociocultural differences as well as to differences in living standards.

Relatively few Greek and Portuguese households were well equipped in 1988. The difference was particularly noticeable in the case of colour television sets, which were found in only half of Greek and Portuguese households. Half of Portuguese households had a washing machine and just over 3.2% of households in Greece had a freezer. Very few families in those two countries had a dishwasher, either. As many households in Greece had videos, however, as in other countries in the Union.

Some peculiarities cannot be explained by a difference in living standards. Although the Dutch generally have a great deal of home-entertainment equipment, very few of them have a dishwasher. The Danes, despite being generally well-equipped, are least likely (after Portugal) to have a washing machine, but they have a much higher level of freezer ownership than other Union countries. Italians have few appliances in general, but more washing machines for which the percentage is higher as the Community average.

Consumer durables, 1988

(% of households equipped)

	EUR 12 (1)	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Colour TV	85.1	86.8	86.0	87.4	51.4	:	84.3	81.8	78.3	90.2	90.7	48.6	98.2
Hi-fi system	44.9	:	78.0	42.4	26.8	:	41.9	36.9	42.5	48.3	70.9	:	:
Video recorder	28.0	26.4	21.0	26.2	24.6	:	24.3	20.5	12.8	22.6	34.8	16.2	50.1
Computer	10.7	7.8	9.0	:	2.5	:	:	6.1	6.6	11.1	19.7	4.6	15.3
Washing machine	84.6	84.8	66.0	85.7	69.1	:	84.6	77.1	91.3	94.7	91.3	50.7	85.2
Freezer	50.2	63.5	89.0	70.4	3.2	:	40.7	:	:	71.9	42.3	35.9	38.5
Dishwasher	22.4	21.6	25.0	28.7	8.2	:	27.8	7.6	17.1	40.3	10.3	6.4	:

[1] Excluding Spain.

The level of consumer durables in European households rose during the 1980s.

The increase was particularly marked in Germany and France, ownership being average in 1980 but around the top by 1988.

The acquisition by households of consumer durables depends not only on their consumption capacity but also on the appearance of new products on the market which gradually become part of daily life.

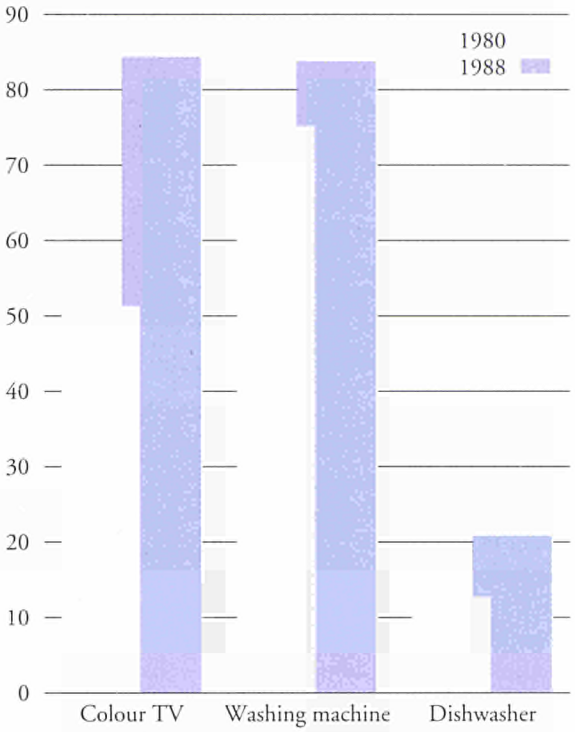
It was in the 1980s that colour television 'took off'. Colour sets were not in widespread use in 1980 but by 1988 they could be found in equally large numbers in most countries, an indication of the fact that the product had 'matured'. The situation with washing machines was very similar back in 1980. They were in much more widespread use than colour TVs, but relatively few households acquired them after that date. The dishwasher is an example of an appliance not yet in common use, an accepted feature of homes in some countries but not all.

As household consumption increases, households acquire more consumer durables.

However, some goods are widespread, but the level of consumption does not match the use. This is the case with colour televisions and washing machines in all countries except Greece and Portugal. Households attaining only 60% of the mean consumption level already have around average numbers of colour TVs and washing machines in the home, whereas ownership of appliances such as video recorders, hi-fi systems or dishwashers ties in more closely with standard of living.

Expenditure level: Average household expenditure equals 1. A household with a 0.6 to 0.8 level of expenditure spends between 60 and 80% of the average.

Consumer durables in households, EUR 12 [1]
% of households equipped



[1] Excluding Spain.

Consumer durables in the household by level of expenditure, 1988

(%)

	EUR 12 (1)	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Colour TV													
Below 0.4	65.2	76.7	78.0	:	18.7	:	68.5	67.7	56.6	77.5	86.9	24.4	97.1
0.4-0.6	73.8	82.5	79.0	:	36.6	:	81.9	75.6	74.2	89.6	88.6	32.1	98.2
0.6-0.8	78.7	84.7	84.0	:	49.2	:	84.0	78.2	79.8	93.5	92.0	42.9	98.4
0.8-1.2	82.4	88.2	86.0	:	57.4	:	86.9	86.2	84.4	91.8	90.9	54.5	97.8
1.2-1.6	85.6	88.2	90.0	:	68.8	:	87.2	87.1	85.3	93.1	90.7	68.1	97.8
Over 1.6	87.3	86.1	92.0	:	77.5	:	88.9	89.4	86.2	92.5	83.3	79.0	98.3
Video recorder													
Below 0.4	14.4	24.5	4.0	:	5.9	:	10.3	12.3	3.6	21.7	26.2	5.2	29.7
0.4-0.6	19.3	21.6	14.0	:	14.3	:	18.2	13.7	6.8	25.3	34.4	6.5	38.5
0.6-0.8	22.9	24.4	17.0	:	20.0	:	20.6	18.1	11.5	20.5	37.5	9.4	49.9
0.8-1.2	27.6	25.2	21.0	:	28.2	:	27.0	22.8	15.0	26.4	37.0	15.9	57.2
1.2-1.6	31.5	29.3	26.0	:	35.8	:	31.0	25.4	20.3	32.3	25.7	25.3	63.5
Over 1.6	34.5	27.4	29.0	:	45.4	:	33.0	28.9	23.6	34.4	18.4	39.0	66.1

[1] Excluding Germany and Spain.

The level of expenditure is not the sole factor influencing the purchase (or rental) of durables.

When a high standard of living is reached, the consumption of certain durables may go down, as has happened with video recorders in the Netherlands or television sets in Luxembourg. This indicates that the consumption of European households depends to some extent on factors other than simple capacity. An increase in one's standard of living, for example, may alter one's lifestyle and consequently the items on which disposable income is spent. Thus Dutch and Luxembourg households with the highest standard of living, who own fewer video recorders and televisions respectively than the expenditure tranche immediately below theirs, consume a higher proportion than the rest of their compatriots on books, restaurants, cafés and tourism.

Prices are most stable in Germany and the Benelux countries, with increases ranging from 12 to 17% only between 1985 and 1992.

It is thus easiest in those countries for households to maintain their standard of living. Since prices of consumer goods have varied very little, there has been a much less pressing need to increase nominal incomes. Apart from the fact that purchasing power is maintained, price stability has a positive effect on living standards by introducing a stable economic climate which households find reassuring and which acts as a spur to consumption.

Between 1985 and 1992, prices of consumer goods rose by a factor of three in Greece and two in Portugal.

In Italy and Spain, they became 1.5 times as expensive. In the United Kingdom, prices rose by a similar factor, but as a result of a boost in demand at the end of the 1980s, even though the United Kingdom has not traditionally been a high inflation country. In all the countries mentioned, households have been able to maintain living standards only by reducing saving or, in some cases, increasing their nominal incomes by a corresponding amount.

Consumer price indices

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
1980	65.3	71.2	68.3	82.6	39.1	56.7	63.3	56.1	52.5	70.3	81.8	35.2	70.7
1985	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1988	110.7	104.1	112.7	101.4	162.5	120.0	108.7	109.4	116.5	101.7	100.6	133.9	113.0
1989	116.3	107.3	118.1	104.2	184.9	128.2	112.7	113.9	123.8	105.1	101.7	151.0	121.8
1990	122.9	111.0	121.2	107.0	222.6	136.8	116.5	117.6	131.8	109.0	104.2	170.9	133.3
1991	129.0	114.6	124.1	110.7	265.9	145.0	120.2	121.3	140.2	112.4	108.4	189.5	141.1
1992	134.6	117.3	126.7	115.1	308.1	153.5	123.0	125.1	147.4	115.9	112.5	206.7	146.4

Food prices rose less than other prices between 1980 and 1992.

Compared with other consumption categories, therefore, increases in food costs did not make much of a dent in household budgets. Since food is one of the major items for families, changes in food prices are crucial for households, particularly the disadvantaged, who spend the largest share of their budgets on this item. The slight rise in prices went hand-in-hand with a slowdown in the consumption of food, reflecting the lack of price elasticity of this kind of consumption once a certain standard of living has been reached.

Housing accounts for an increasingly large share of expenditure.

In most countries, housing costs rose more sharply than any other between 1980 and 1992, although Belgium, Greece, Spain, Ireland and Luxembourg bucked this trend. These increases are particularly important, since housing, along with food, is one of the main budget items. The cost increases thus had a negative effect on the consumption of European households, and worked particularly to the disadvantage of the less well-off families, single persons and the elderly, for whom housing is a larger item of expenditure. Nevertheless, the increase in housing prices has generally accompanied a rise in the actual consumption of housing, and thus one of the factors pushing up costs might well be the surge in demand, in many cases aggravated by the growing number of households breaking up.

There is more variation in the prices of other categories of consumption.

Leisure activities are becoming relatively more expensive in Denmark, Greece, Ireland and Italy, but actual consumption varies from one country to another, rising in Italy and falling in Greece. Price movements are not the only reason behind changes in this type of consumption, which is very sensitive to ways in which a household's purchasing power is affected by other factors (income, the prices of other goods). The same applies to transport, where prices move in different ways in different countries and consumption is just as variable and not necessarily dependent on costs. In real terms, furniture and clothing are less important items in household budgets, with furniture prices rising only slightly and clothing prices varying.

Rise in prices per category, 1980 to 1992

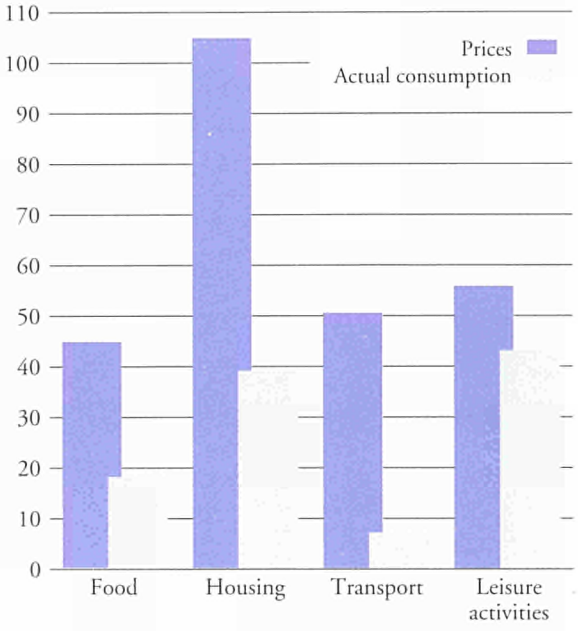
(%)

	Total	Food	Housing	Transport	Leisure	Clothing	Furniture	Other
B	64.7	51.7	60.5	58.2	60.7	76.1	57.0	82.0
DK	85.5	68.4	102.8	85.1	86.3	76.9	78.9	51.3
D	39.3	26.8	44.4	44.2	30.9	34.1	34.7	56.0
GR	688.0	676.4	641.4	496.7	820.8	839.8	658.3	822.7
E	170.7	160.8	161.1	168.9	162.0	176.4	151.7	244.0
F	94.3	90.9	118.6	90.1	78.0	103.7	90.9	121.5
IRL	123.0	85.4	97.7	114.6	136.4	72.1	89.9	162.0
I	180.8	163.7	209.6	162.0	197.6	189.9	167.4	216.7
L	64.8	61.6	51.5	49.2	57.1	64.6	68.9	82.2
NL	37.5	22.2	56.9	41.3	24.4	7.6	26.2	36.9
P	487.2	436.2	679.4	549.0	411.9	538.0	533.7	458.5
UK	107.0	77.4	182.0	93.2	93.6	33.4	71.1	138.4

The effect of prices on living standards depends on elasticity of demand and on how much families spend on a particular category of consumption.

The effect of a price rise on household living standards varies in line with the kind of goods. Certain categories meet basic requirements and are thus necessary items, with no substitution possible (food, housing, and some transport items). A rise in the prices of such goods therefore has a greater effect on households as a whole, since they cannot do without them.

Prices and actual consumption in the United Kingdom, 1980-88 (%)

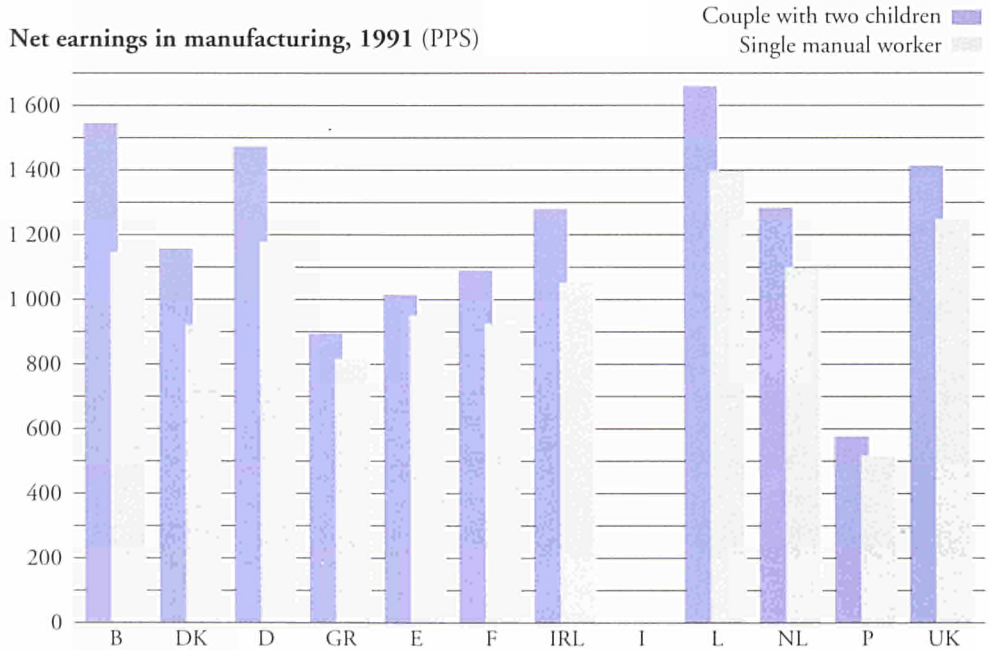


Net earnings are another measure of living standards.
These are obtained by deducting total taxes and social security contributions from gross wages or salaries and adding family allowances. This study relates to households where the head of the family is a manual worker in manufacturing.

The net earnings of manual workers are highest in the Benelux countries, Germany and the United Kingdom.

They are highest in Luxembourg — up to 1 396 PPS per month in 1991 for a manual worker living alone and 1 658 PPS for a couple with two children and an average single salary. Next come the United Kingdom and Germany, followed by Belgium and the Netherlands. There is an enormous difference between the highest figures and those which apply to Portugal, where the net earnings of a single manual worker are only 517 PPS per month and those of a household with two children 576 PPS, i.e. one-third of the level in Luxembourg.

Net earnings in manufacturing, 1991 (PPS)



NB: Data not available for Italy.

Structure of the earnings of manual workers in manufacturing, 1991

(% of gross earnings)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
For a worker living alone												
Taxes	25.4	44.4	21.6	8.0	11.2	6.2	28.8	:	6.1	12.8	7.0	18.9
Social security	13.0	2.0	18.3	15.0	6.1	18.0	7.8	:	12.2	23.2	11.0	7.6
Family allowances	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	:	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Net earnings	**61.6**	**53.7**	**60.0**	**77.0**	**82.7**	**75.9**	**63.5**	**:**	**81.7**	**64.0**	**82.0**	**73.5**
For a couple with two children												
Taxes	14.6	36.1	10.7	8.0	6.3	0.0	17.7	:	0.0	10.8	3.0	15.7
Social security	13.0	2.0	18.3	15.0	6.1	18.0	7.8	:	12.2	22.3	11.0	7.6
Family allowances	10.6	5.6	4.1	7.5	0.6	7.3	2.7	:	9.2	7.9	5.2	6.5
Net earnings	**83.0**	**67.6**	**75.1**	**84.5**	**88.3**	**89.3**	**77.2**	**:**	**97.0**	**74.8**	**91.2**	**83.2**

The net earnings of a couple with two children and a single bread-winner are in every case higher than those of a manual worker living alone.

This is because taxes and family allowances affect net earnings. Couples with two children are least well-off in this respect in Greece, Spain and Portugal, where they earn only around 10% more than single workers. In the other Member States, the additional earnings vary from 13% in the United kingdom to 35% in Belgium, thus widening the gap between countries where couples with children are concerned. The households of French manual workers, and, even more so, those of Belgians and Danes consisting of a couple with children thus have higher relative incomes.

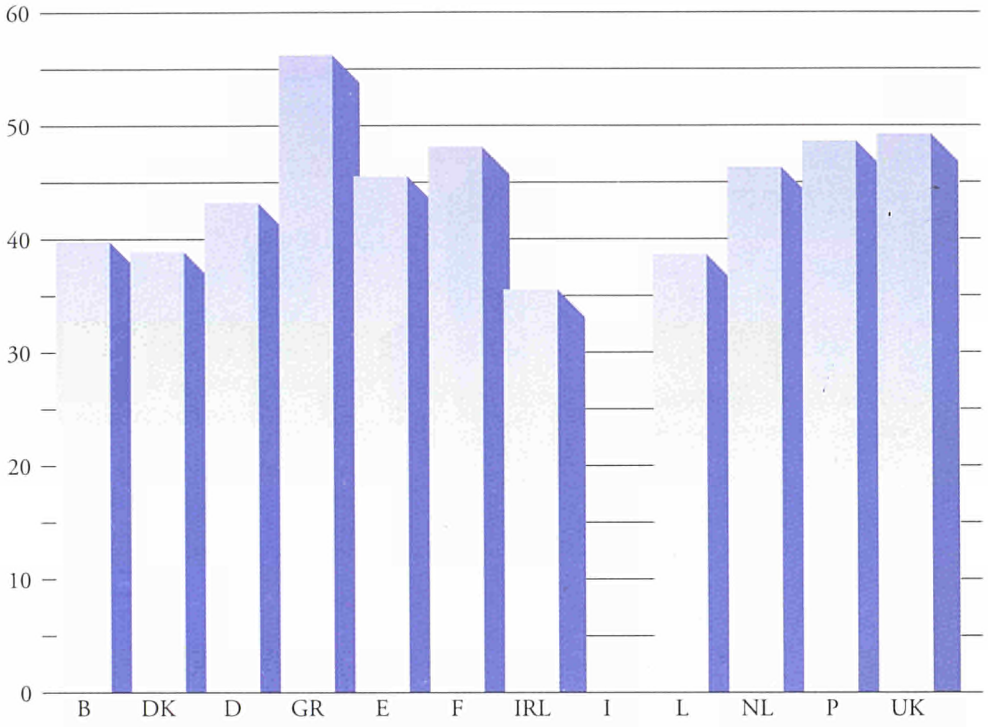
Schemes for increasing the net earnings of couples with children vary from country to country, but are least well-developed in the south.

The most common way of helping families in Belgium is an allowance equivalent to 10% of income, whilst families in Germany benefit most from a 50% reduction in the tax rate. In Greece, there is no tax reduction for the families of workers with children.

Although redistribution via taxation has little effect on the relative standards of living in the Member States overall, the effect is still fairly noticeable in Ireland, Luxembourg, Belgium and Denmark.

In these countries, if there is an initial difference of 56% in the gross earnings of manual workers with 80% or 125% of the average wage, the difference in net earnings will be less than 40%.

Differences between the net earnings of manual workers in manufacturing living alone, 1991 (%)



NB: Data not available for Italy.

Net earnings of manual workers in manufacturing, living alone, 1991

(PPS)

	Below-average wage (80%)			Average wage			Above-average wage (125%)		
	Gross earnings	Net earnings	% of gross	Gross earnings	Net earnings	% of gross	Gross earnings	Net earnings	% of gross
B	1 487	972	65.3	1 859	1 144	61.6	2 324	1 359	58.5
DK	1 368	773	56.5	1 710	918	53.7	2 137	1 074	50.2
D	1 566	984	62.8	1 958	1 176	60.0	2 447	1 409	57.6
GR	846	651	77.0	1 057	814	77.0	1 321	1 017	77.0
E	918	789	85.9	1 148	950	82.7	1 435	1 148	80.0
F	975	761	78.0	1 218	924	75.9	1 523	1 127	74.0
IRL	1 325	911	68.7	1 656	1 051	63.5	2 070	1 234	59.6
I	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
L	1 367	1 180	86.3	1 709	1 396	81.7	2 136	1 635	76.6
NL	1 373	910	66.2	1 716	1 099	64.0	2 145	1 331	62.0
P	505	424	84.0	631	517	82.0	788	630	80.0
UK	1 359	1 025	75.4	1 699	1 249	73.5	2 123	1 529	72.0

Around 52 million people may be considered to be living below the poverty line in the European Union, i.e. one household in seven.

In 1988, the consumption expenditure (per adult equivalent) of 17.6 million households in the European Union was below the poverty threshold.

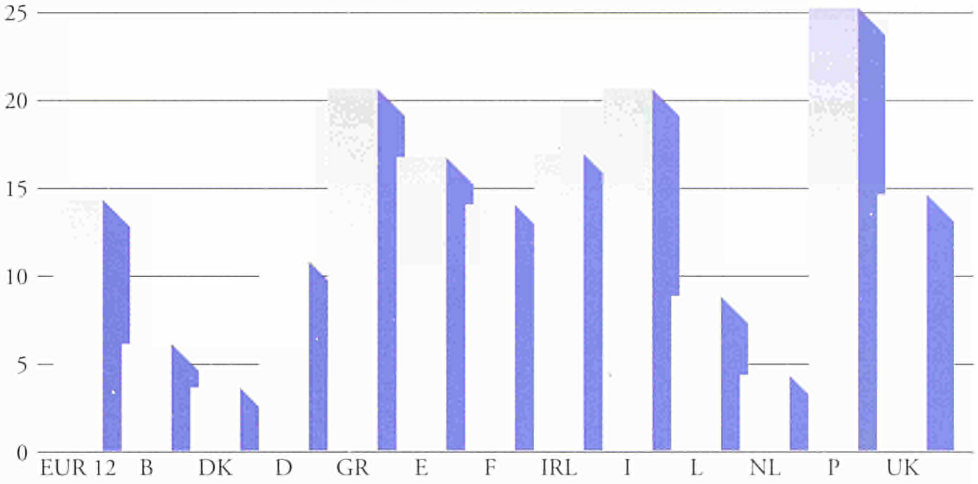
On average, 14.3% of households in Europe live below the poverty line.

A comparison of the geographical location of disadvantaged populations suggests no uniform pattern. There is a relatively low percentage of such households in Denmark and the Netherlands compared with the European Union as a whole. Since the poverty rate in those two countries is below the Community average, only one household in over 20 is disadvantaged.

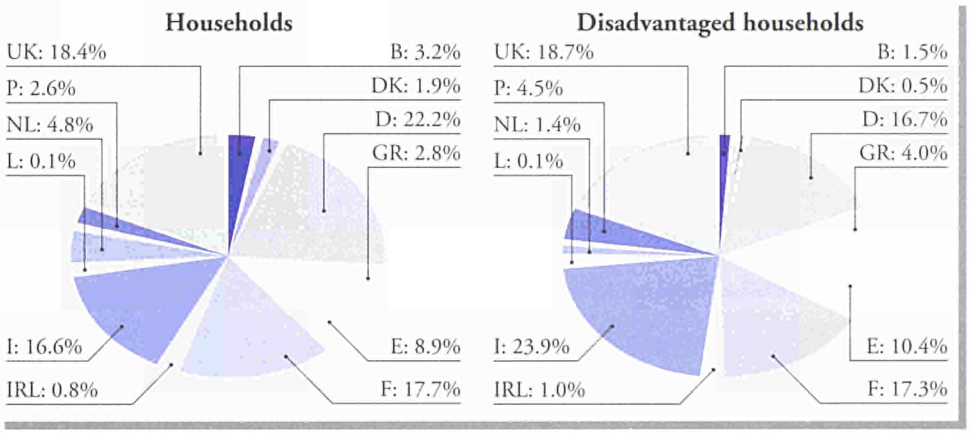
In contrast, the consumption expenditure of one household in five in Portugal, Greece and Italy is equivalent to or below the poverty threshold. Thus the percentage of disadvantaged households in those three countries is higher than in the Union as a whole.

In between these two groups, the poverty ratio is lower than the Community average in Belgium, Luxembourg and Germany and above average in Spain and Ireland. The rates calculated for France and the United Kingdom are close to the Community average of 14.3%.

Breakdown of the disadvantaged population, 1988 (% of total population)



Geographical breakdown of the total population and of disadvantaged households, 1988



Consumption expenditure, taken as a yardstick of living standards, is often used to measure poverty objectively in monetary terms. The results of the family budget surveys of households are the basic statistical source. Homeless persons, those with no fixed abode and those living in communities such as retirement homes are excluded.

The units observed are households of varying sizes and compositions. A scale of equivalence is used to compare them, with household expenditure converted to expenditure per adult equivalent.

The scale used here is the OECD's: the weightings are: 1 for the first adult in the household, 0.7 for other adults and 0.5 for children under 14.

The poverty threshold is fixed at 50% of average national expenditure per adult equivalent. On this basis, all persons, households, or groups of individuals whose equivalent expenditure is equal to or less than this threshold will be considered as poor or disadvantaged.

The unemployed, those working in the agricultural sector and retired persons are most likely to be at risk.

In 1988, over half of the least privileged European households came into these three socioeconomic groups, which together account for 37% of all households. The probability (with respect to both those three groups and the European Union average) is highest when the head of household is unemployed, and lowest when he or she is retired.

The relative extent of the risk of 'social exclusion' in each of these socioeconomic groups differs from one Member State to another.

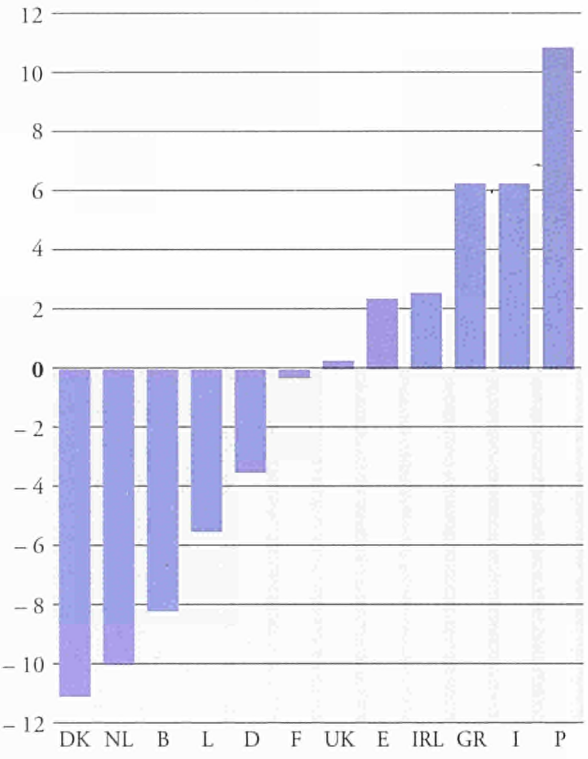
In Ireland, for example, when the head of household is unemployed, it is much more likely that the household will be living below the poverty line than if its head is working in agriculture or is retired. The poverty rate in the first case is 48.9% and 9.6% and 15.6% respectively in the other two cases. In Denmark, the opposite is the case: of the three categories, the risk is lowest for a head of household who is unemployed.

Elderly persons living alone, families with four or more children and single-parent families are most likely to be poor.

Large families run the largest risk of falling into the disadvantaged category. The poverty rate is highest for this category in all the Member States except Portugal.

The population category next most at risk is elderly persons living alone in the south European countries and in France and single-parent families in the other Member States.

Difference between national poverty rates and the Community average, 1988 (%)
(in terms of households)



Poverty rates by socioprofessional category of the head of household, 1988

(in terms of households)

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Total	14.3	6.1	3.6	10.8	20.6	16.7	14.0	16.9	20.6	8.8	4.3	25.2	14.6
Employee in industry or services	8.9	3.2	2.2	7.1	11.1	9.3	9.1	6.9	15.9	7.1	2.8	16.7	6.1
Self-employed	7.7	10.8	3.5	1.9	15.7	13.3	9.5	6.9	12.9	9.6	2.5	12.6	5.1
Farmer or agricultural worker	21.9	20.5	18.6	13.6	30.5	28.3	26.4	9.6	33.5	32.8	1.9	38.6	16.8
Unemployed	35.0	26.6	2.7	38.0	24.7	30.3	33.7	48.9	35.2	39.0	9.3	47.2	45.5
Retired	19.1	4.0	4.0	13.7	30.4	23.2	16.7	15.6	26.8	9.3	6.6	42.5	21.7
Other	16.8	1.8	7.7	:	20.7	16.7	23.1	26.7	29.5	10.4	6.3	31.9	28.6

Poverty rates by type of household, 1988

(in terms of households)

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Total	14.3	6.1	3.6	10.8	20.6	16.7	14.0	16.9	20.6	8.8	4.3	25.2	14.6
Single person aged under 65	9.1	3.4	2.9	7.2	11.1	13.2	8.7	13.7	10.7	1.4	2.4	23.4	9.1
Single person aged 65 or over	21.5	2.7	2.4	14.6	33.1	25.8	22.6	23.2	28.7	6.1	7.4	47.2	23.7
Couple with no children	12.4	2.9	4.0	8.0	27.5	17.2	8.8	9.1	20.6	3.4	3.3	28.6	12.0
Couple with 1, 2 or 3 child(ren)	12.5	7.5	4.0	10.8	15.2	12.6	12.6	13.3	18.7	10.9	3.4	15.1	11.8
Couple with 4 or more children	38.5	29.8	25.6	30.1	35.0	27.9	49.6	29.9	51.5	25.0	19.1	44.2	39.5
Single-parent family	21.6	15.4	3.8	25.2	17.1	20.7	18.8	24.5	20.9	17.2	15.7	27.2	25.1
Other types of household	16.1	12.1	0.0	11.5	25.8	20.5	20.0	13.9	23.0	16.5	3.6	31.9	11.4

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STANDARD OF LIVING

LEISURE – HOLIDAYS

The average family in Europe spends 6.4% of its budget on travel, hotels, restaurants, bars and cafés.

On average, a greater share of the money is spent on travel and hotel bills than on restaurants, bars and cafés.

In terms of the net occupancy rate of beds in hotels and similar establishments, the peak period is the summer, when hotels may be filled to 50% or even 80% of capacity.

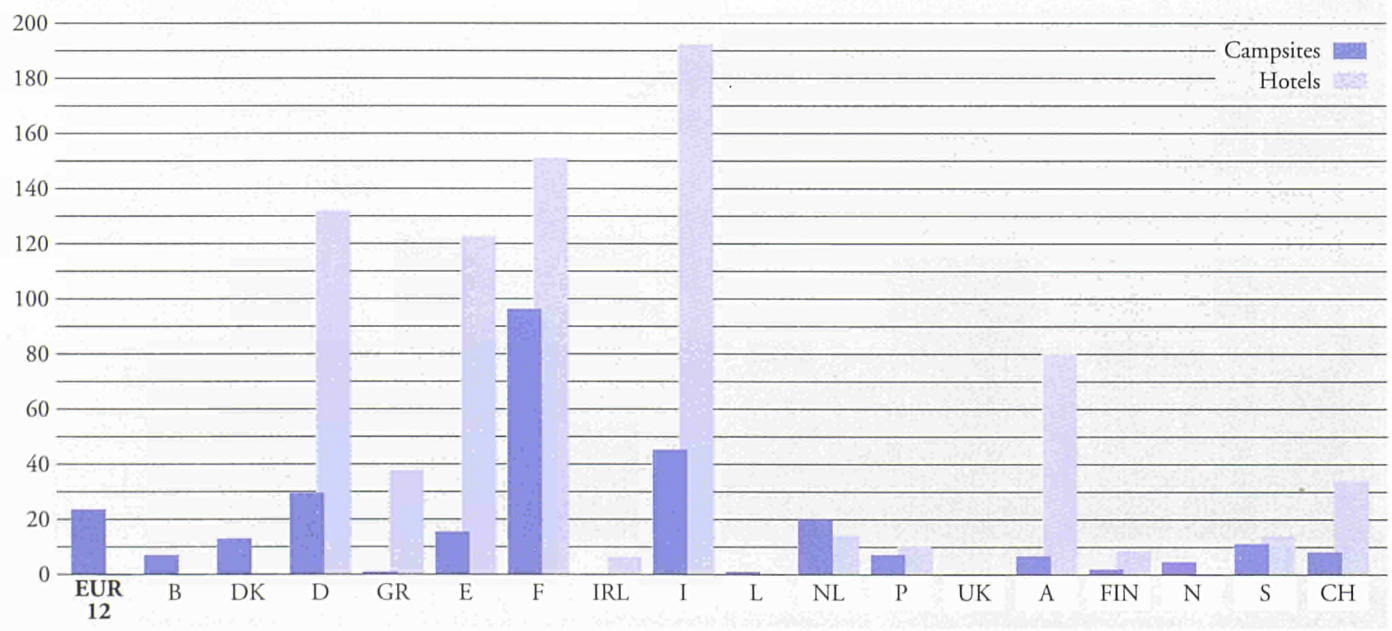
In 1992, more nights were spent in hotels in Italy, France and Germany than in the other countries, and more by persons resident in the country concerned than by non-residents.

In 1990, almost 20% of journeys made by people living in the European Economic Area were business trips rather than holiday travel.

As with hotels, more nights are spent on campsites and in holiday villages in France than anywhere else, with the lowest figures in Greece.

Sport is another leisure-time activity: almost one person in five belongs to a sports club. Between 1980 and 1990, numbers taking part in sporting activities increased in almost all countries for which data are available, the exception being Portugal.

Number of nights spent on campsites or in hotels, 1992 (million)



NB: Both sets of figures for Greece and those for hotels in Ireland and the Netherlands refer to 1991.

In 1988, an average of one-sixteenth of household budgets was spent on restaurant, café, hotel and travel services.

There are major differences between countries, the two extremes being France (3.7%) and the United Kingdom (10.1%). The weight of this type of consumption does not relate directly to either total consumption or price levels in any country.

Restaurants accounted for the largest share of the consumption of this group of services (2.7% of family budgets).

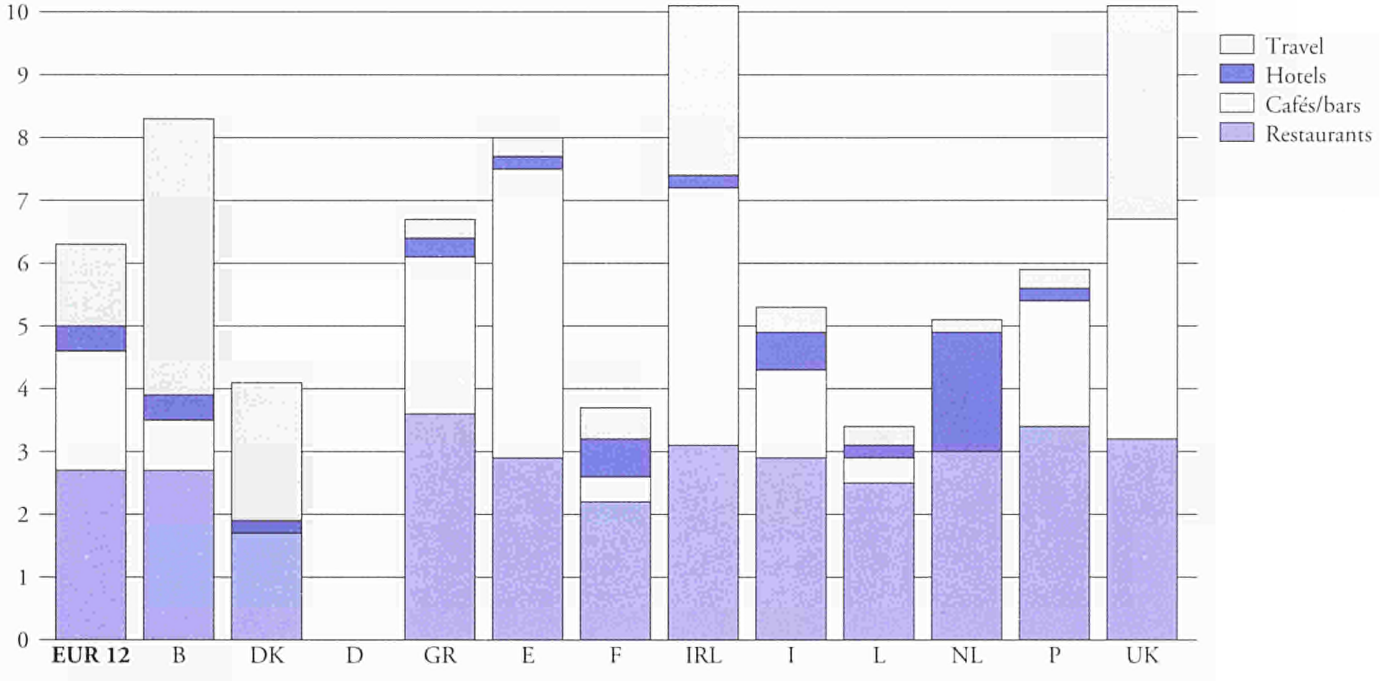
The percentage varies little in the Community, ranging from 1.7% in Denmark to 3.6% in Greece. In the southern European countries, the United Kingdom and Ireland, the percentages are above the 2.7% average.

On average, less than 2% of family budgets is spent in bars and cafés.

The figures are above average in Spain (4.6%), Ireland (4.1%) and the United Kingdom (3.5%), and higher than those for restaurants. This item accounts for the lowest percentages of budgets in Denmark, France and Luxembourg.

The share of family budgets spent on travel and hotels averages 1.7%, with relatively high figures in Belgium, Ireland and the United Kingdom and much lower figures in the south of Europe and Luxembourg.

Breakdown of household budgets, 1988 (% of total budget)



NB: Germany: data not available.
For the Netherlands, restaurants include bars and cafés and for the United Kingdom, travel includes hotels.

The higher a household's income, the higher the percentage of it spent in restaurants.

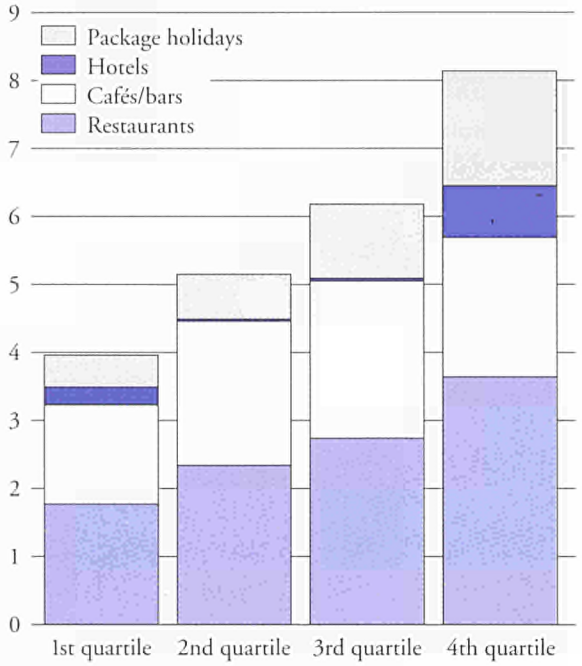
At Community level, households in the last income quartile (i.e. the quarter with the highest incomes) spend 8% of their budget on this item as against the 4% of the households in the first quartile (lowest incomes).

Expenditure on travel, hotels, bars and cafés and restaurants depends to varying extents on income levels.

Consumption may rise as incomes increase, but the pattern of increase is not the same in all countries. There is a steady rise in Spain, Italy and the United Kingdom. In France, fourth-quartile households spend much more on leisure services, relatively speaking, than households in other quartiles. In Luxembourg and the Netherlands, first-quartile households spend the same proportion of their budget on these services as households in the third quartile.

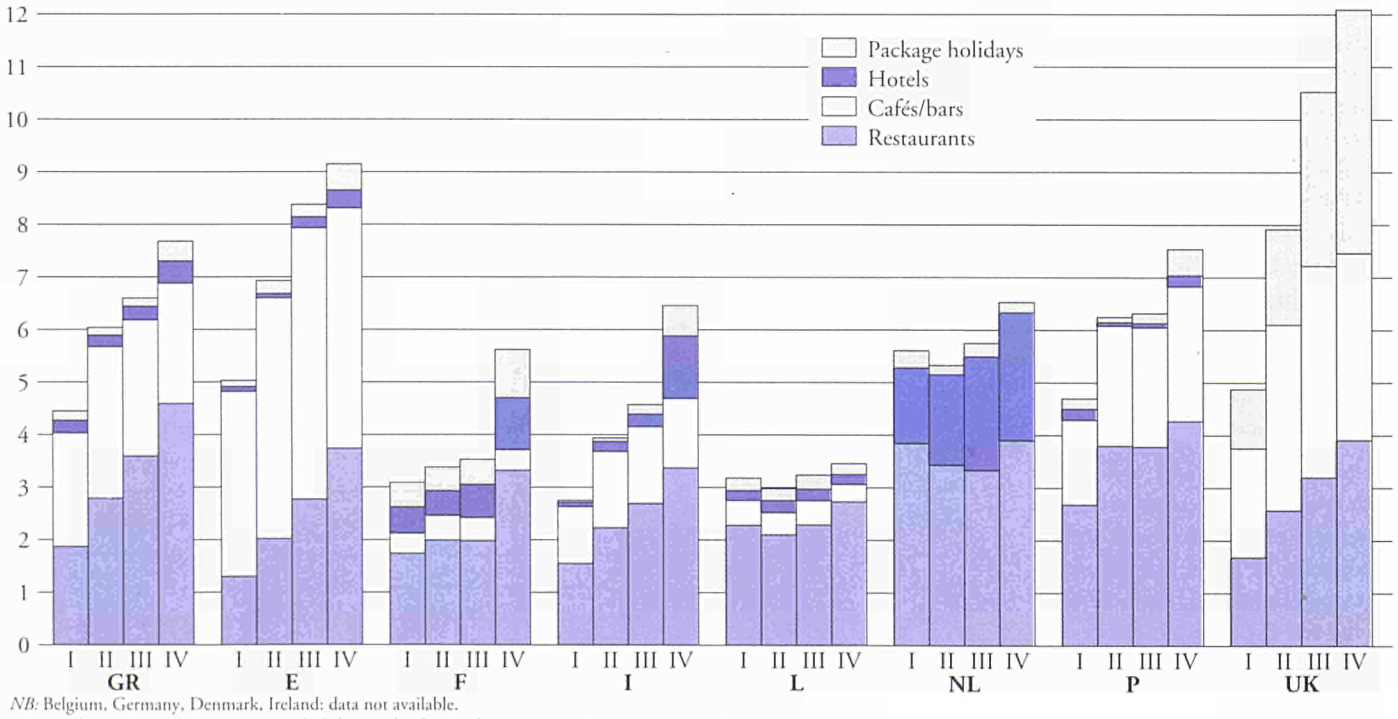
The share of budgets spent in restaurants does not always change in proportion to income levels. The share spent in bars and cafés increases in line with income, but tends to level out or even to decline above a certain income level (third and fourth quartiles). Expenditure on hotels and travel is higher for households with fourth-quartile incomes than for other households.

Consumption by income tranche, 1988, EUR 12
(% of total budget)



NB: Belgium and Germany: data not available.

Consumption by quartile, 1988 (% of total budget)

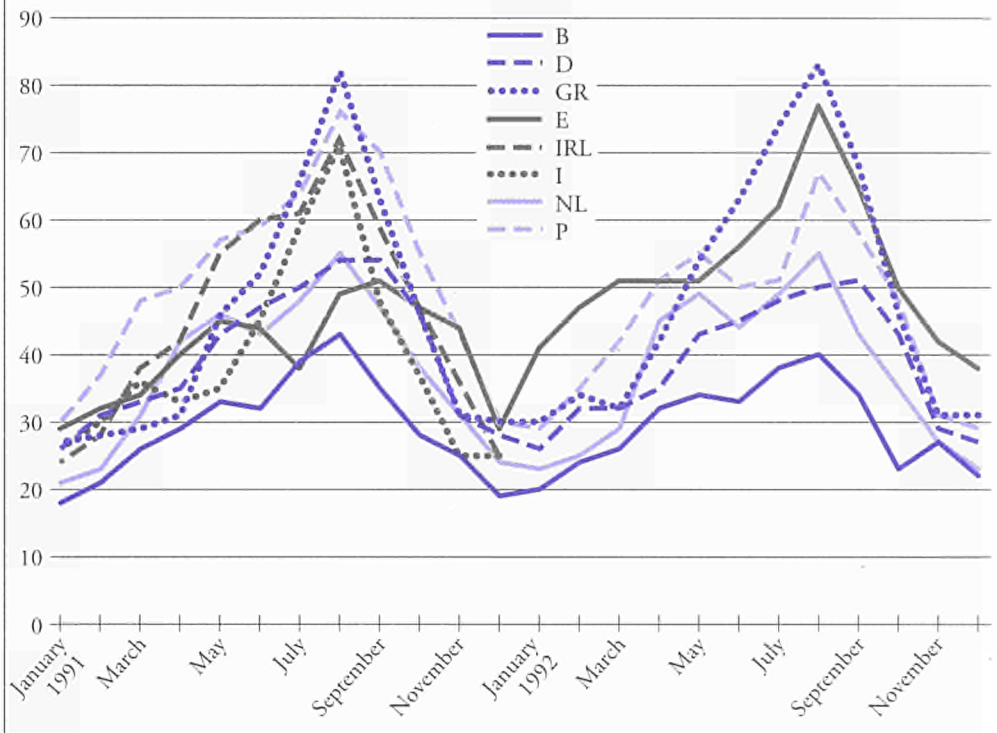


NB: Belgium, Germany, Denmark, Ireland: data not available.
For the Netherlands, restaurants include bars and cafés and for the United Kingdom, travel includes hotels.

The net occupancy of hotel beds peaks during the summer months.

In July and August, hotels are filled to between 50 and 80% of capacity (figures include both tourists and business travellers). In contrast, winter holidays are not reflected so clearly since they are staggered over a longer period.

Net occupancy rates for hotel beds, 1991-92
(% of hotel capacity)

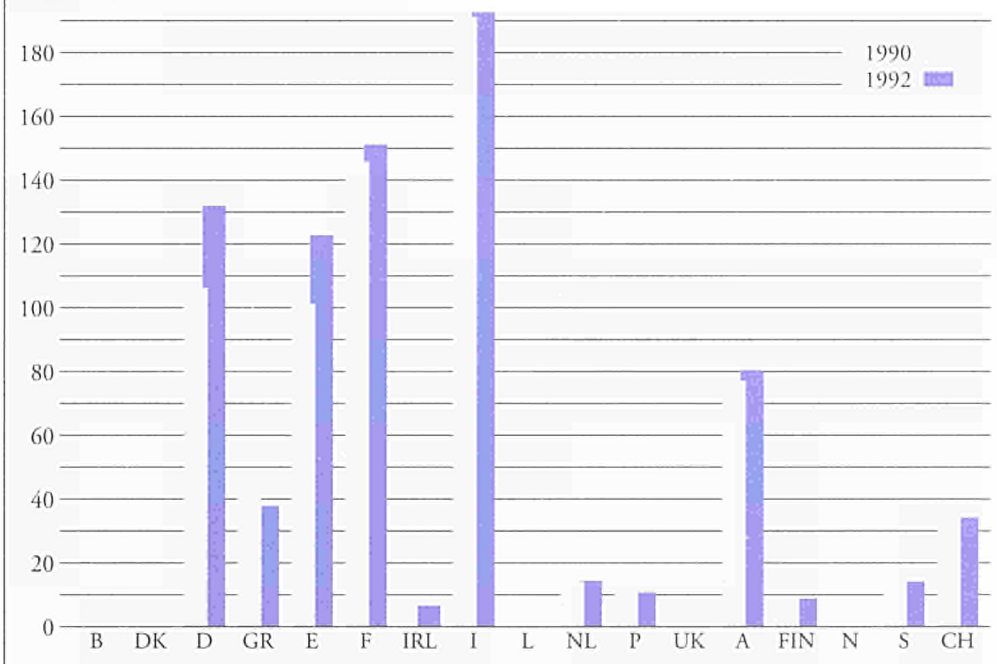


In 1992, France, Germany, Italy and Spain recorded the most nights spent in hotels.

Of the 10 EEA countries for which data were available, six showed increases in the number of nights in hotels between 1990 and 1992 and four recorded a decline. In Greece, there was a fall of around 12% compared with a 1% drop in Portugal. In Finland, the drop was 9% and in Sweden 13%. Over the same period, there were fairly substantial increases in certain other countries: 21% in Spain and 17% in Germany. In France, Austria and the Netherlands, increases in the number of nights ranged from 1 to 4%.

Cultural and sporting events, along with congresses, fairs and exhibitions, all have an effect on hotel occupancy. In 1992, the Olympic Games in Barcelona, Expo 92 in Seville and the choice of Madrid as European City of Culture all led to an increase in the number of nights spent in hotels in Spain.

Nights spent in hotels (millions)



NB: Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom and Norway data not available.
The data for Greece, Ireland and the Netherlands refer to 1991, not 1992.

The number of nights means each night spent in a hotel or similar establishment by a guest or for which a guest has registered, regardless of whether or not he or she is physically present.

It was mainly non-residents who were responsible for the drop in the number of nights spent in hotels in Greece and Portugal between 1990 and 1992.

In Germany and Italy, there were also fewer non-residents who spent nights in hotels, but they had proportionately less effect than residents, and for this reason the total number of nights went up in those countries.

In 1992, the number of nights spent by non-residents in Germany, France, Italy, Finland and Sweden was fewer than those spent by residents. In the other countries, except for Finland and Sweden, non-residents spent, on average, more than twice as many nights in hotels as residents.

Nights in hotels, by nationality

(million)

	Residents		Non-residents	
	1990	1992	1990	1992
B	:	:	:	:
DK	:	:	:	:
D	90.45	107.75	25.67	24.28
GR	10.82	10.89	32.41	27.06
E	41.87	43.30	59.37	74.54
F	89.87	91.60	55.93	59.63
IRL	:	2.61	:	4.05
I	125.05	129.15	66.01	63.41
L	:	:	:	:
NL	:	:	:	:
P	2.82	2.99	8.05	7.79
UK	45.80	67.90	:	:
A	15.15	16.16	61.89	64.19
FIN	7.38	6.79	2.29	2.06
N	:	:	:	:
S	13.03	11.34	3.19	2.80
CH	14.74	13.99	21.04	20.24

NB: Data for Greece, Ireland and the Netherlands refer to 1991, not 1992.

Residents are guests who reside in the country where the establishment in which they are staying is located. Non-residents are those living in a different country. Guests who are nationals of the country visited but resident in another country are also counted as foreigners.

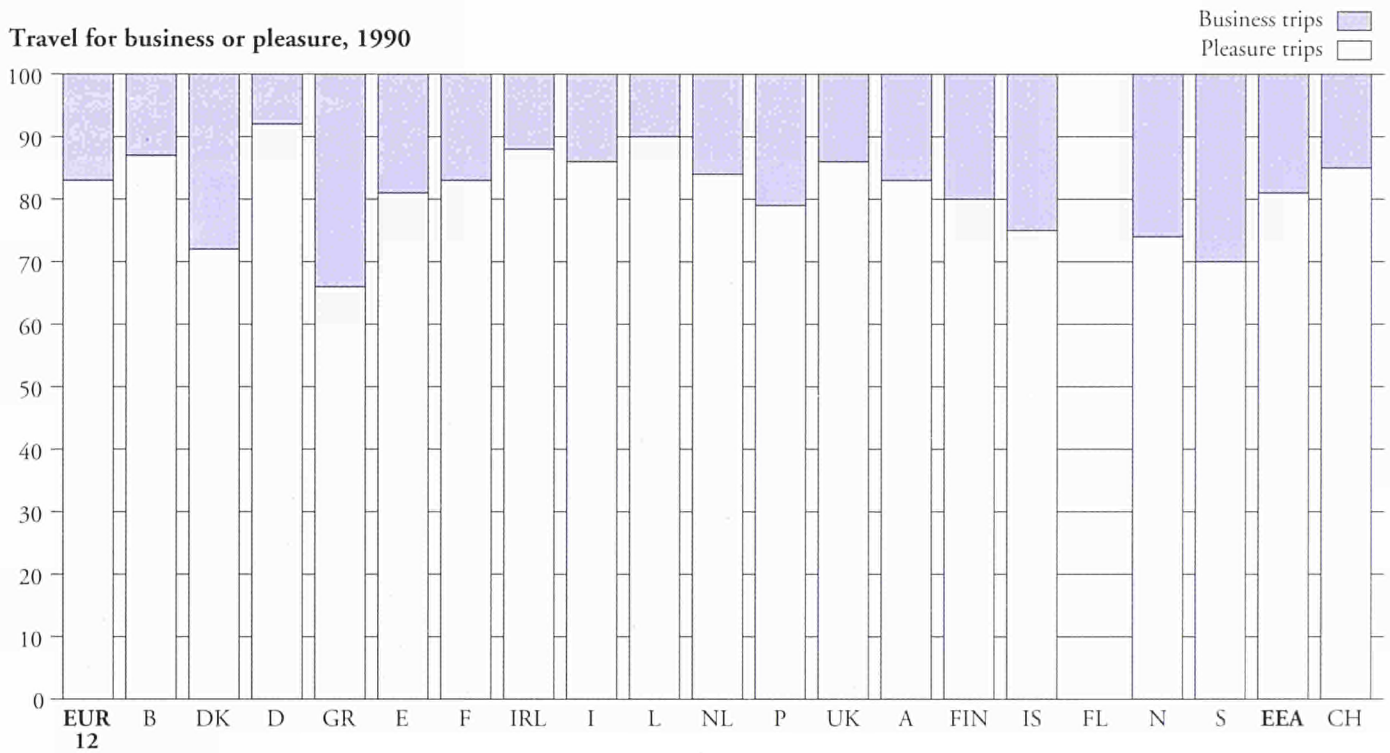
A survey has suggested that around 19% of journeys made by people living in the European Economic Area are for business rather than pleasure.

In 1990, 17% of journeys made by citizens of the EU were business trips: the figure was a quarter or more in the case of the Greeks (34%), the Swedes (30%), the Danes (28%), the Norwegians (26%) and the Icelanders (25%).

On the other hand, this proportion of business trips was less than 15% in Belgium, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom and in Germany only 8%.

A travel survey was conducted in 1990 and 1991 by the European travel monitor for a study by the European Commission. Interviews were held every two months (i.e. six times during the year) with a sample of 2 000 people aged 15 or over, i.e. 12 000 people interviewed per year, except in Germany, where there were 36 000 contacts per year, and in the smaller countries such as Greece, Iceland, Luxembourg and Portugal, where the sample was smaller.

Travel for business or pleasure, 1990



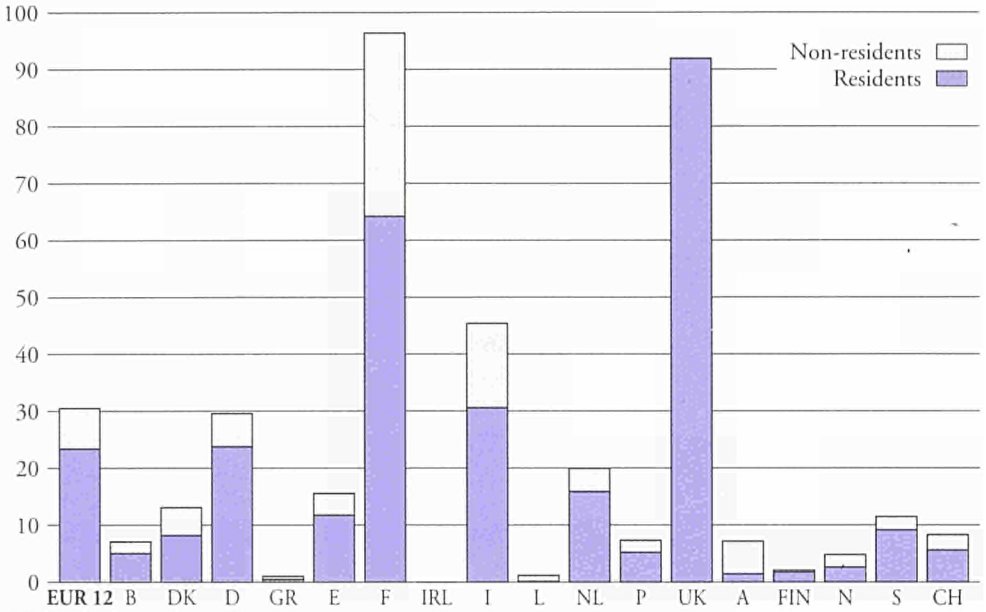
Source: 'European travel monitor'.

The number of nights spent on campsites and in holiday villages was highest in France and lowest in Greece.

The number was above the European average in the United Kingdom and Italy but below average everywhere else. It is clear, however, that the physical size of a country has a certain effect, as it does with the number of nights spent in hotels.

Except for Austria, in all the countries fewer nights are spent on campsites and in holiday villages by non-residents than by residents, but in France and Italy non-resident guests account for fairly high percentages.

Nights on campsites and in holiday villages, 1992 (1 000)



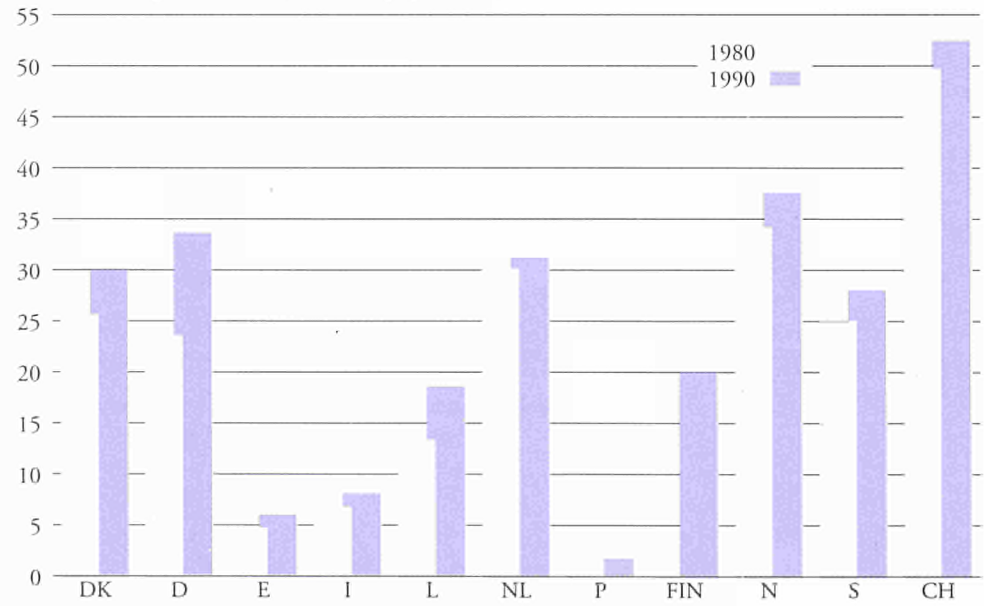
NB: Data for Greece refer to 1991.
In the United Kingdom, data are collected from households, not from the sites or villages.

Between 1980 and 1990, the percentage of the population of Europe taking part in sporting activities increased.

In 1987, one EU citizen in six was actively interested in sport – 17.3% of those questioned for a Eurobarometer survey. In 1990, a higher percentage of the population of northern Europe than of the southern countries took part in sporting activities as members of either clubs or associations. Over 30% of the population of Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands and Norway are members of a sports club, and over 50% of the population of Switzerland. In Italy, Portugal and Spain the figure is under 10%.

The pattern of change in these figures varies from country to country, with participation declining in Portugal but increasing elsewhere.

Members of sports clubs (% of the population)



NB: The figures for Luxembourg date from 1980 and 1991 and for Portugal from 1985 and 1990.
Data for Finland refer to 1987 and 1988, for Sweden and Switzerland to 1980 and 1985.

The information on sport comes from the national statistical institutes and is therefore not harmonized. It generally covers members of sports-related associations.

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STANDARD OF LIVING

CULTURAL ACTIVITIES

A family in Europe spent, in 1988, an average of almost 5% of its budget on leisure/cultural activities in the form of reading or audiovisual entertainment.

The number of loans from public libraries per person per year is lower in the south of Europe than in the north. With an average of at least one public library service point per 20 000 inhabitants, people living in the north of Europe and in Spain receive the best service.

On average, women read less than men. Reading newspapers is a more common activity in the northern European countries, but the written press is in decline, in terms of numbers of both titles and copies.

Germany and Spain have the largest turnover of books.

Leisure/cultural activities in the home are illustrated by the spectacular rise in the purchase of compact discs.

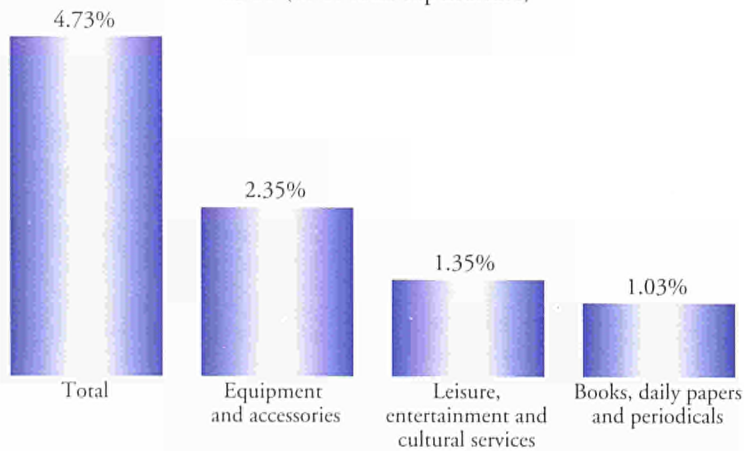
Between 1980 and 1990, Europeans went to the cinema less frequently.

Fewer films were produced in Europe, with American films increasing their share of box office receipts: between 60 and 80% of total receipts in 1990, depending on country.

More than one third of households own a video cassette recorder, boosting the 'home consumption' of leisure/cultural activities.

More than 80% of households have a television set and, on average, men watch it more than women do.

Household expenditure on leisure and cultural activities, EUR 12, 1988 (% of total expenditure)

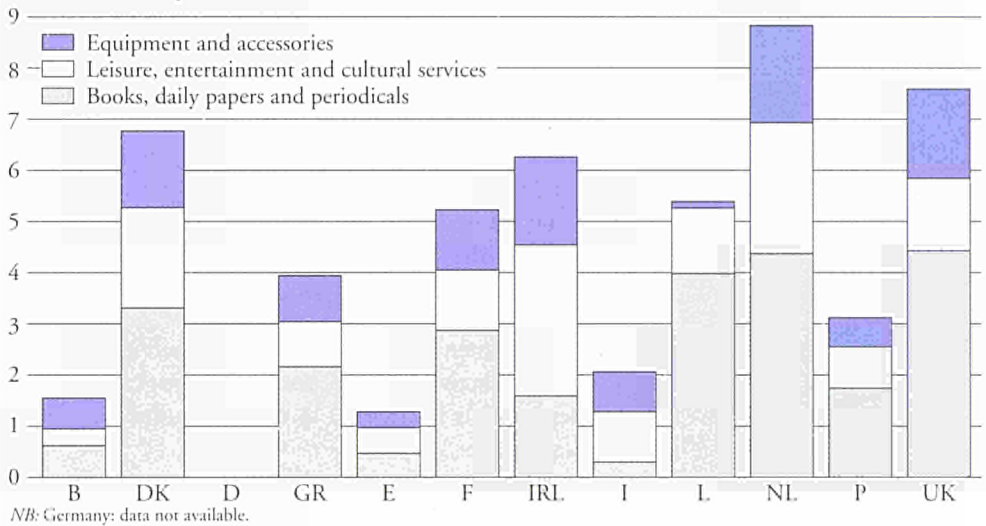


On average, a family in Europe spent almost 5% of its budget on cultural and leisure activities in 1988.

This expenditure was divided into three groups, from the highest proportion of expenditure to the lowest: equipment and accessories, leisure, entertainment and cultural services and, finally, books, daily papers and periodicals.

The amount of expenditure on each of these groups does not depend solely on quantity. It is without doubt also influenced by the prices of the various products.

Household budget, leisure and cultural activities, 1988
(as % of total expenditure)

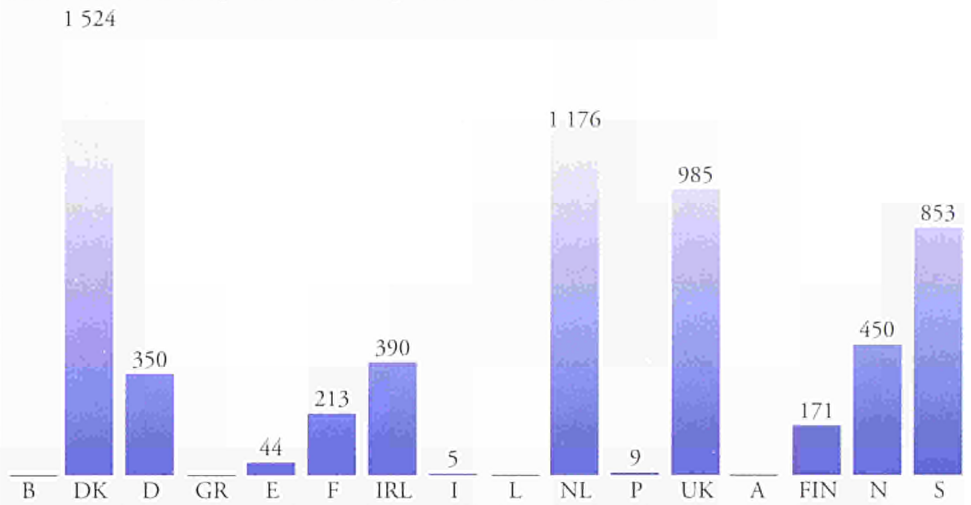


NB: Germany: data not available.

Overall, families living in the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Denmark spend most on cultural and leisure activities.

These three countries belong to northern Europe, where the climate may influence behaviour as regards such activities, on which the Spaniards spend a lower proportion of their budget than any other Europeans. Next come the Belgians and other families in the south, who also spend relatively little.

Annual loans from public libraries per 100 inhabitants, 1989



NB: Belgium, Greece, Luxembourg and Austria: data not available. Denmark, Italy and Portugal: 1990 data; Spain: 1988 data; France: 1987 data and Ireland: 1986 data.
Source: Unesco.

The number of loans from public libraries per year is highest in Denmark: 1 524 loans per 100 inhabitants.

This indicator measures the extent to which Europeans show an interest in reading as a leisure/cultural activity. The Dutch and the British also borrow a fairly large number of books from public libraries. The French, Germans and Irish form another group, with 200 to 400 annual loans per 100 inhabitants. People living in the south of Europe (the Spaniards, Portuguese and Italians) tend to borrow fewer books.

As regards ease of access to libraries, the Portuguese fare the worst.

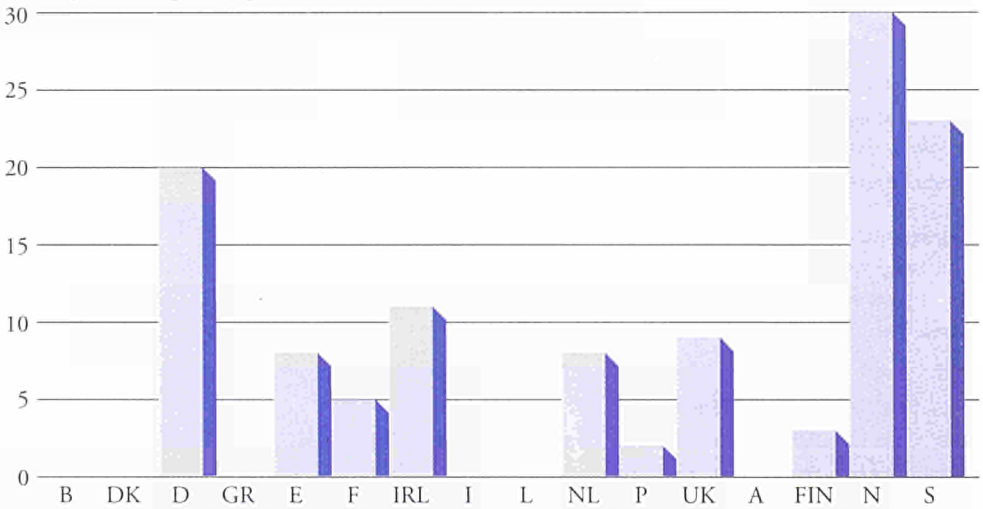
In this country there are two service points per 100 000 inhabitants which corresponds to over 44 000 inhabitants per service point. On the other hand, the Portuguese next to the Italians borrow the fewest books.

Although ease of access to libraries is one of the factors determining the use of library services, it is not always a major factor governing the number of annual loans. In Spain, the population is fairly well served with an average of eight service points per 100 000 inhabitants, but the Spaniards borrow less than one book per person per year. In the Netherlands, there are also eight service points per 100 000 inhabitants, but the number of loans is much higher than in Spain.

The national libraries of the United Kingdom and Germany have more books than any other.

Alongside public libraries which are open to anyone, there are national libraries with limited access. In general, there are one or two national library service points in capital cities, except in decentralized countries such as Germany and Spain or the United Kingdom. Germany's federal structure has resulted in seven national library administrative units.

Library service points per 100 000 inhabitants, 1990



NB: Belgium, Denmark, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg and Austria: data not available. Spain 1988 data; Ireland 1986 data.
Source: Unesco.

National librairies, 1989

	B	DK (1)	D (1)	GR	E (2)	F	IRL (3)	I	L (1)	NL	P (1)	UK (1)	A	FIN (1)	IS	FL	N	S	CH
Administrative units	1	1	7	1	1	:	1	2	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Service points	1	4	7	1	7	:	2	2	1	:	1	23	:	:	:	1	2	4	1
Books, 1 000	4 000	3 348	17 339	2 500	3 421	:	808	5 402	685	2 294	2 236	27 500	2 686	2 749	406	130	2 030	2 350	:

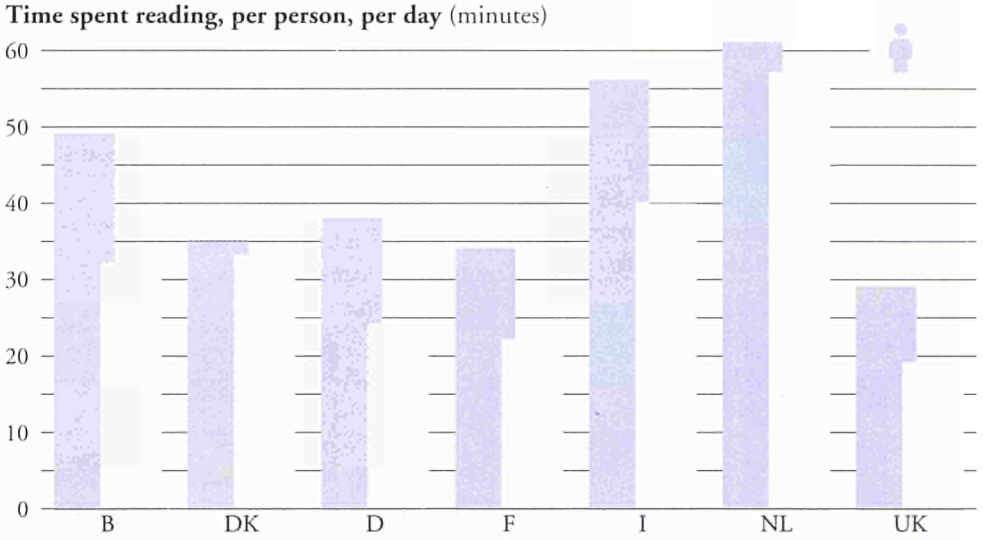
Source: Unesco.
[1] 1990 data.
[2] 1988 data.
[3] 1986 data.

Reading time includes the reading of books, newspapers and magazines.

On average, Europeans read for almost 40 minutes per day.

The time spent on reading may be a further measure of the interest shown by Europeans in written forms of entertainment/culture. The Dutch, followed by the Italians, are the greatest readers, reading for an average of three quarters of an hour, to an hour per day.

Time spent reading, per person, per day (minutes)



NB: The data come from various surveys, not totally harmonized: Belgium and Germany 1965; Denmark 1987; France average of 1965 and 1974; Italy 1980; Netherlands, average of 1975, 1980 and 1985; United Kingdom average of 1961, 1975 and 1985.
Source: Gershuny. 'A concise atlas of time use', 1991.

On average, the higher the level of education reached, the more time is spent per day reading.

Those Italians who have had higher education spend on average twice as much time reading as other Europeans with the same level of education.

In general, women read less than men, with the difference depending on level of education. However, in Italy women who have completed higher or secondary level education read as much as men do. In the Netherlands, men and women who have completed primary or secondary education spend the same amount of time reading.

Time spent reading, according to level of education

(in minutes per day)

	Men			Women		
Level of education	Primary	Secondary	Higher	Primary	Secondary	Higher
B	45	42	76	25	32	75
DK	33	36	39	29	37	37
D	25	55	:	18	38	:
F	25	33	67	16	23	52
I	34	59	125	25	59	124
NL	51	60	70	51	60	61
UK	34	25	29	21	17	27

NB: The data come from various surveys, not totally harmonized: Belgium and Germany 1965; Denmark 1987; France average of 1965 and 1974; Italy 1980; Netherlands, average of 1975, 1980 and 1985; United Kingdom average of 1961, 1975 and 1985.
Source: Gershuny. 'A concise atlas of time use', 1991.

In the countries in the north of the European Union, there is a more marked tendency to read daily papers.

The most avid newspaper readers are in the United Kingdom and Denmark (over 35 copies per 100 inhabitants in 1990). With around 30 copies per 100 inhabitants in Germany, Belgium and the Netherlands, the populations of those countries are also fairly inclined to read newspapers, whereas the Portuguese and the Spaniards read least (fewer than 10 copies per 100 persons).

Newspaper print runs

(per 100 inhabitants)

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
1970	:	36	32	8	10	24	23	14	38	32	9	45
1979	23	37	41	:	:	20 [3]	23	9	36	32	5	43
1990	30	35	33 [1]	6 [2]	8 [2]	21	21	11 [1]	38	31 [1]	4	39 [2]

NB: The figures for Greece refer to 12 daily papers only.
Source: Unesco.
[1] 1989.
[2] 1988.
[3] 1978.

Number of daily newspaper titles

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
1970	49	55	350	117	116	106	7	73	7	97	33	110
1979	26	49	380	116	105	90	7	75	5	83	30	110
1990	33	47	315	117	102	79	7	76	5	86	24	104

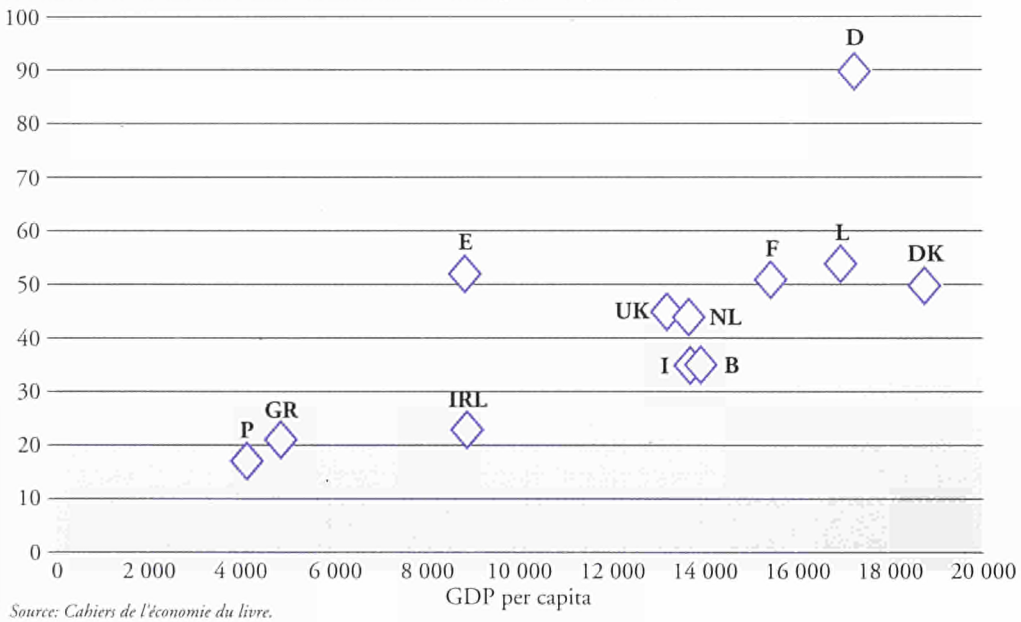
Source: Unesco.

Between 1970 and 1990, interest in newspaper reading, as estimated by print runs, generally waned.

However, in Belgium, France, Italy and Luxembourg, print runs increased during the 1980s.

On the other hand, the total number of titles declined throughout the European Union with the exception of Italy, Greece and Ireland. From 1979 onwards, the figures rose in Belgium and the Netherlands and in Greece and Ireland production remained stable. These changes may be due to the process of concentration which was typical of industry as a whole and to the growing role of audiovisual mass media.

Market for books in terms of national wealth,[1] 1989 (in ECU)



Source: Cahiers de l'économie du livre.
[1] Per capita turnover on books.

Purchases of books (estimated via turnover) in some cases tie in with a country's wealth as measured by its per capita gross domestic product (GDP).

But the assumption that countries with the lowest per capita GDP have the lowest book industry turnover is not universally true. In Italy, Belgium and Denmark, the population buys fewer books than their per capita GDP would suggest. The reverse applies in Spain and Germany.

In Denmark, books are two and a half times as expensive as in France.

Differences in price may affect purchases. With the highest price index for books in the European Union, the Danes purchase fewer books than per capita GDP would suggest. However, they have a greater tendency to borrow from libraries.

However, the price elasticity of demand cannot be verified in all countries. With the lowest price index in France, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom, the turnover per capita on books is highest in those countries.

Price index for books, 1989 (EUR 12 = 100)

B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
111	167	126	111	111	67	100	117	86	:	116	94

VAT rates generally applied, May 1993

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Books	6	25	7	4	3	5.5	0	4	3	6	5	0

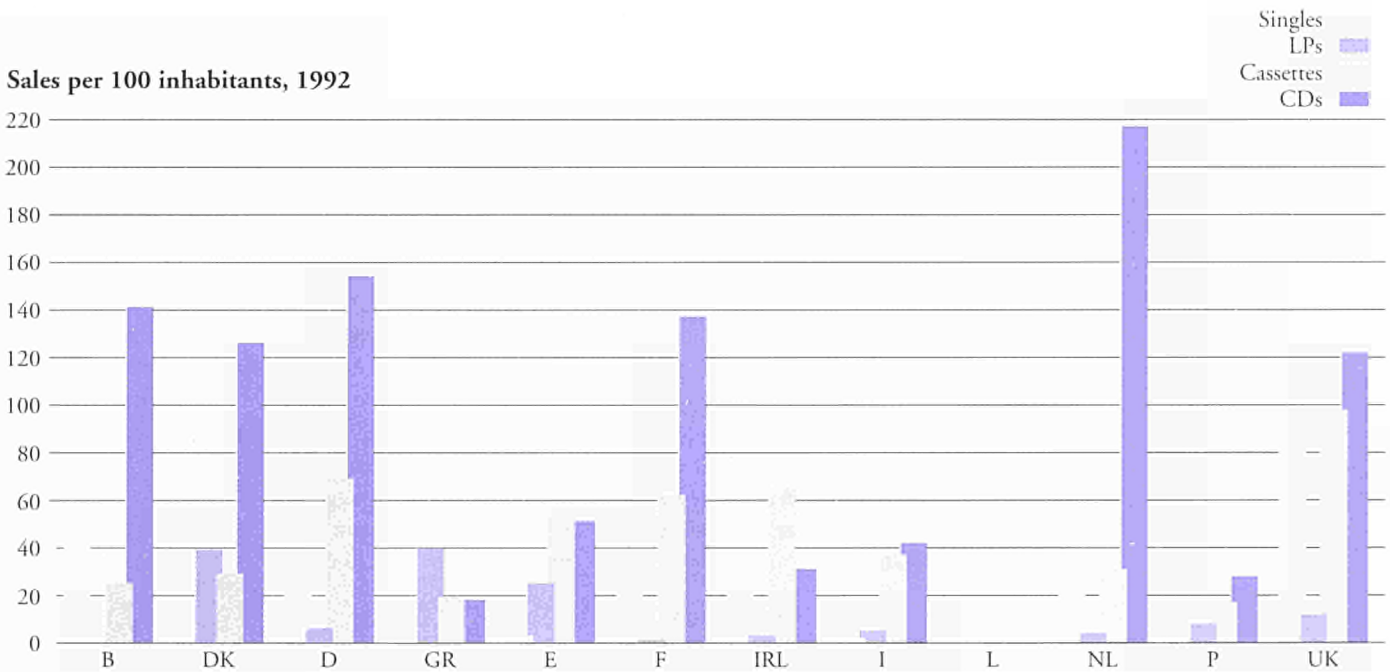
VAT rates may also affect book prices.

Despite the harmonization of VAT rates on 1 January 1993, there are still disparities. In Ireland and the United Kingdom, books are zero-rated, but the price index is not lowest in those countries. In France a high rate of VAT does not result in high prices.

Compact discs (CDs) and cassettes are the most fashionable music recording media.

People in the Netherlands, Germany, Belgium, France and Denmark buy the largest number of CDs in relation to population size. In the same relative terms, most cassettes are purchased in the United Kingdom, Germany, Ireland and France. The Greeks and Danes prefer LPs, whereas the British buy large numbers of singles.

Sales per 100 inhabitants, 1992



NB: Luxembourg: data not available.
Source: Panorama of EU industry, 1994.

CD sales more than tripled between 1988 and 1992.

The increase in sales of compact discs and cassettes is evidence of the Europeans' increasing interest in this way of 'consuming' music and is accompanied by a fall in sales of 'vinyl discs'. Thus sales of singles and LPs fell by factors of 2.3 and 2.7 respectively between 1980 and 1990, and this decline became slightly more rapid from 1988 onwards. Sales of cassettes grew between 1988 and 1990 but fell back between 1990 and 1992.

Sales of cassettes and CDs

(millions)

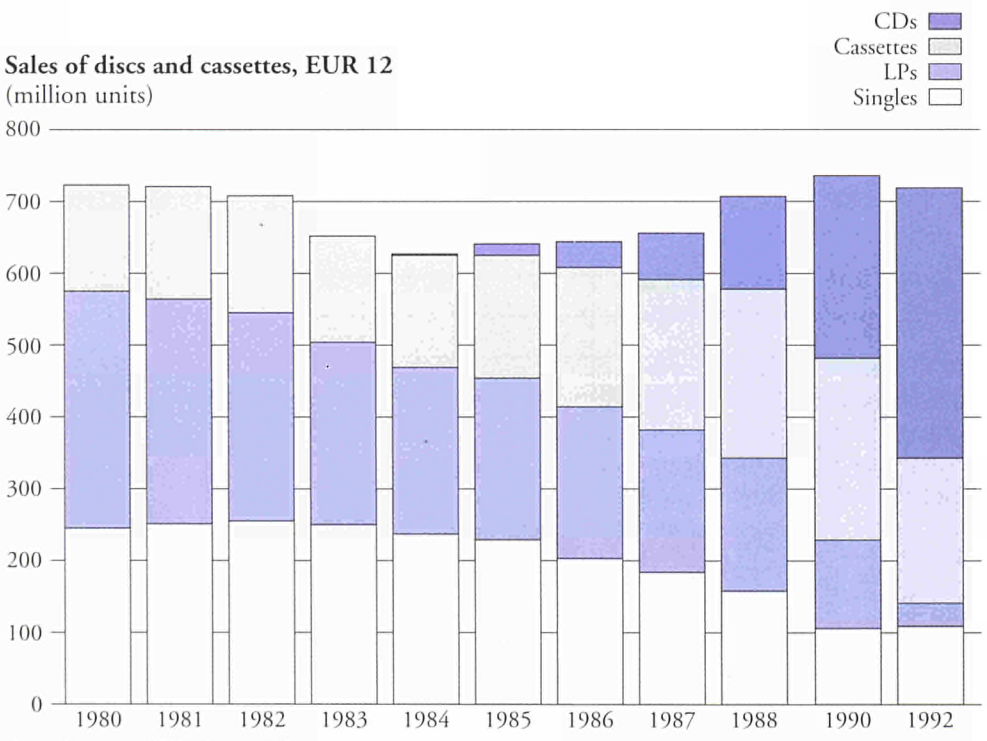
	Cassettes			Compact discs		
Year	1988	1990	1992	1988	1990	1992
EUR 12	235	253	202	129	254	376
B	2	3	3	4	9	14
DK	2	2	2	2	3	7
D	60	76	56	39	76	124
GR	3	2	2	0	1	2
E	23	24	21	2	7	20
F	31	42	36	26	55	79
IRL	2	:	2	0	0	1
I	23	25	21	7	15	24
L	0	:	:	0	:	:
NL	5	3	5	18	35	33
P	3	3	2	0	1	3
UK	81	74	56	29	51	71

Source: Panorama of EU industry, 1994.

Between 1980 and 1992, the pattern of disc and cassette purchasing changed completely.

Music lovers' purchases are evidence of the technological revolution, in particular the appearance of the laser, which has led to the development of CDs and a high quality of home entertainment/cultural appreciation. The large number of cassettes sold would appear to be linked to the development of the personal stereo over the last 10 years and the steady rise in the numbers of radio-cassettes in cars.

Sales of discs and cassettes, EUR 12
(million units)



Source: Panorama of EU industry, 1994.

Europeans went to the cinema less frequently between 1980 and 1990.

The decline in the figures was least noticeable in the United Kingdom and most noticeable in the Northern European countries. The Italians and the Greeks went to the cinema more than 4.5 times per year on average in 1980, but less than twice a year in 1990. Currently, the keenest cinema-goers are in Luxembourg, France and Spain, with over two visits per annum.

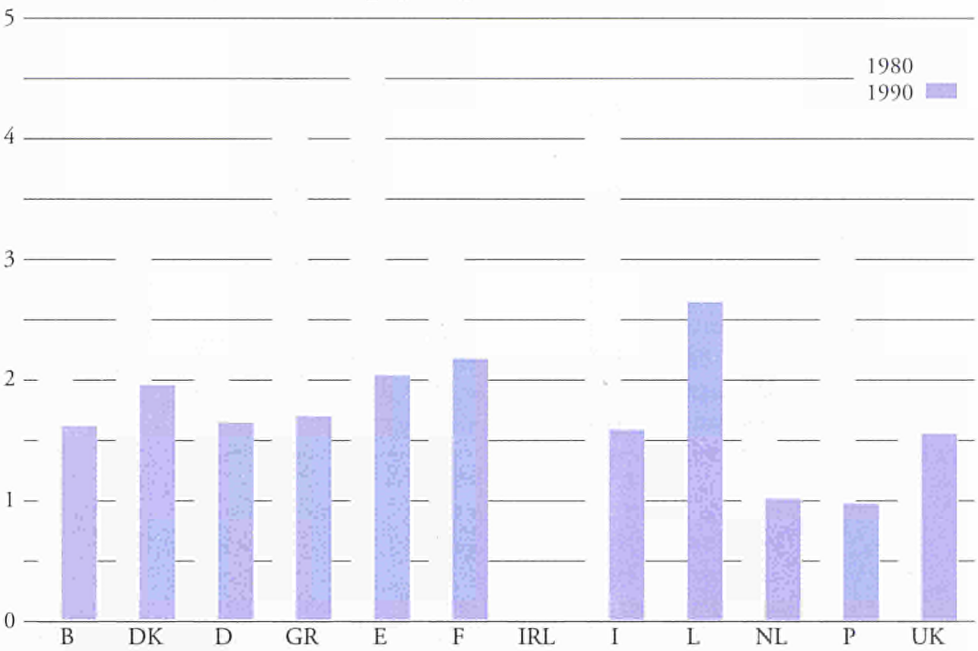
One of the reasons for the drop in cinema attendance could be the increase in seat prices.

There seem, in fact, to be two inversely proportional trends. There was a steady rise in box office receipts between 1955 and 1990 but no increase in the number of tickets sold. Obviously, therefore, the price per cinema-goer increased.

The higher the price of seats, the less often people go to the cinema.

The average price is highest in the United Kingdom (almost ECU 8) and people seldom go to the cinema. People go to the cinema most frequently in Luxembourg and Spain, where the average seat price is lowest.

Cinema attendance, annual average per capita



NB: Ireland: data not available.
Source: CNC.

Box office receipts

(index 1955 = 100)

	D	F	I	UK
1955	100	100	100	100
1970	148	161	125	210
1990	240	250	300	300

Source: Panorama of EU industry, 1994.

Correlation between cinema attendance and seat prices

	Price of a cinema seat (ECU)	Visits per capita (1990)
B	4.64	1.61
DK	5.13	1.95
D	3.76	1.64
GR	2.38	1.69
E	3.24	2.03
F	4.40	2.17
IRL	4.54	:
I	4.79	1.58
L	3.23	2.64
NL	4.84	1.01
P	2.97	0.97
UK	7.51	1.55

Sources: CNC and Eurostat for prices.

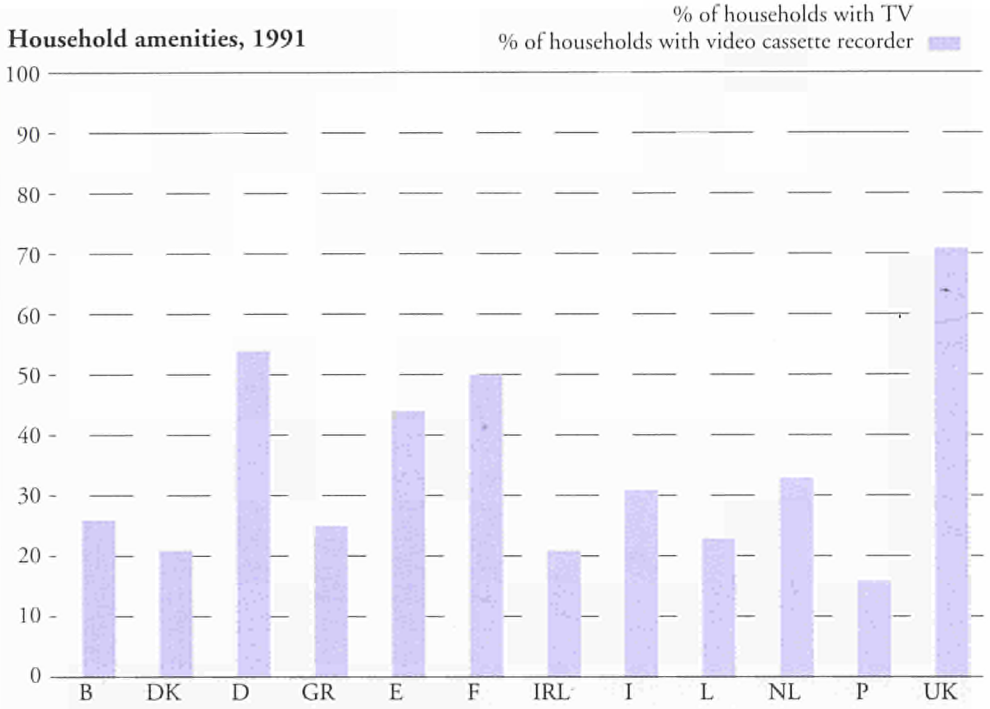
The continuing increase in the importance of television and the rise in the number of video recorders may also be responsible for the fall in cinema attendances.

Television makes possible a kind of 'consumption of culture/entertainment' in the home. Throughout the 1980s, there was a steady rise in ownership of televisions and video cassette recorders, which allowed for a greater freedom of choice as regards timing and the film to be watched whilst allowing people to stay at home. This phenomenon is comparable to the rise in sales of CDs and hi-fi equipment.

In 1991, over 90% of European households owned at least one television set. However, some 15% of households in Portugal did not have one. The figures for Denmark are also fairly low, but they date from 1987.

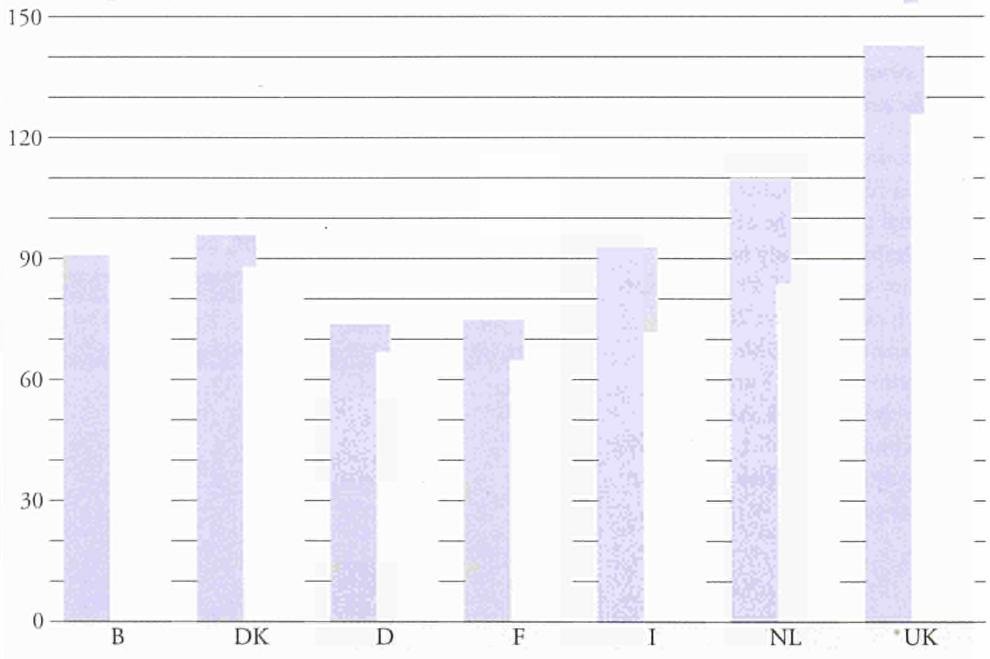
On average, men watch more television than women, except in Belgium. Again in average terms, people in Germany, France and Italy spend slightly less time watching television and/or listening to the radio.

Household amenities, 1991



NB: Denmark and Luxembourg 1987 data; Portugal: 1990 data.
Sources: Panorama of EU industry, 1994. Family budget surveys.

Time spent watching television or listening to the radio
(minutes per day)



NB: The data come from different surveys which are not totally harmonized: Belgium and Germany 1965; Denmark 1987; France, average of 1965 and 1974; Italy 1980; the Netherlands average of 1975, 1980 and 1985; United Kingdom average of 1961, 1975 and 1985.
Source: Gershuny, 'A concise atlas of time use', 1991.

France and Italy produce over 100 feature films per year.

Production ranges from 36 to 71 feature films per annum in Germany, the United Kingdom and Spain. In the Netherlands, Denmark, Greece and Belgium, around 10 feature films are produced every year.

There was a widespread general decline in the production of cinema films in Europe in the 1980s.

The most spectacular fall was in Spain (by 70% in 10 years) and Belgium. The two exceptions to this decline are Germany and the United Kingdom, where more feature films were produced in 1990 than in 1980.

American films account for more than 60% of box office receipts in all the countries of the Union, with the exception of France.

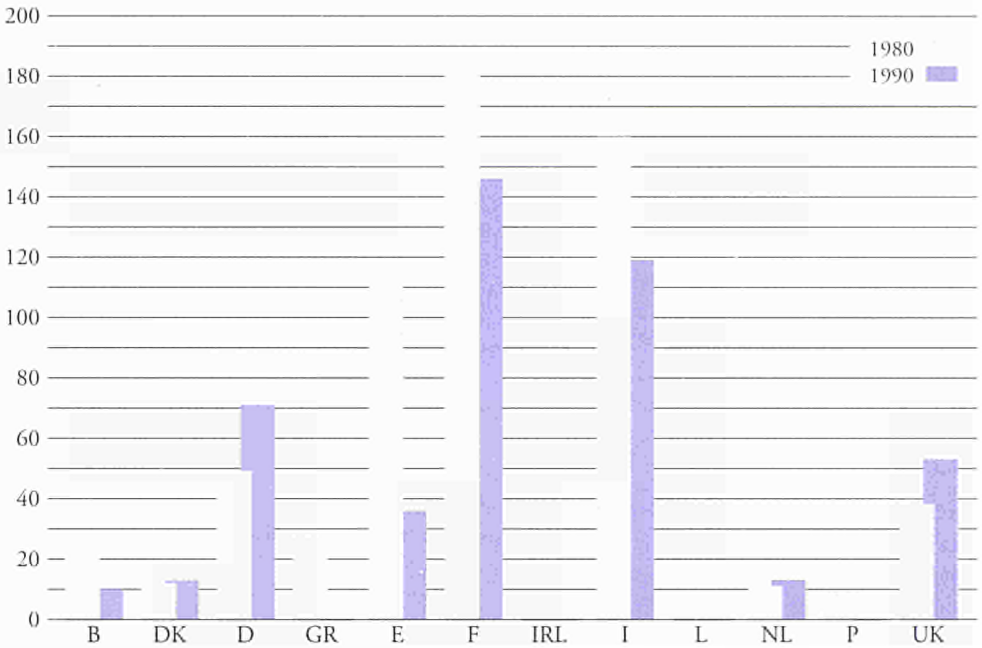
In this country and in Italy, home-produced films accounted for a substantial percentage of receipts in 1990. Despite a steady fall since 1980, they earned 37.4% of receipts in French cinemas and 20.5% in Italian cinemas (in 1980, the proportions were 47.7 and 43.5% respectively). In 1990, American films accounted for 58.1 and 66.4% respectively of box office receipts in those two countries.

Number of feature films produced, 1990

B	DK	D	GR (1)	E (2)	F	IRL	I (2)	L (2)	NL	P (2)	UK
10	13	71	12	36	146	:	119	1	13	6	53

Source: CNC.
1 1988 data.
2 1989 data.

Production of cinema films



NB: Ireland and Luxembourg: data not available.
Source: CNC.

Proportion of box office receipts accounted for by national and American films, 1990 *(%)*

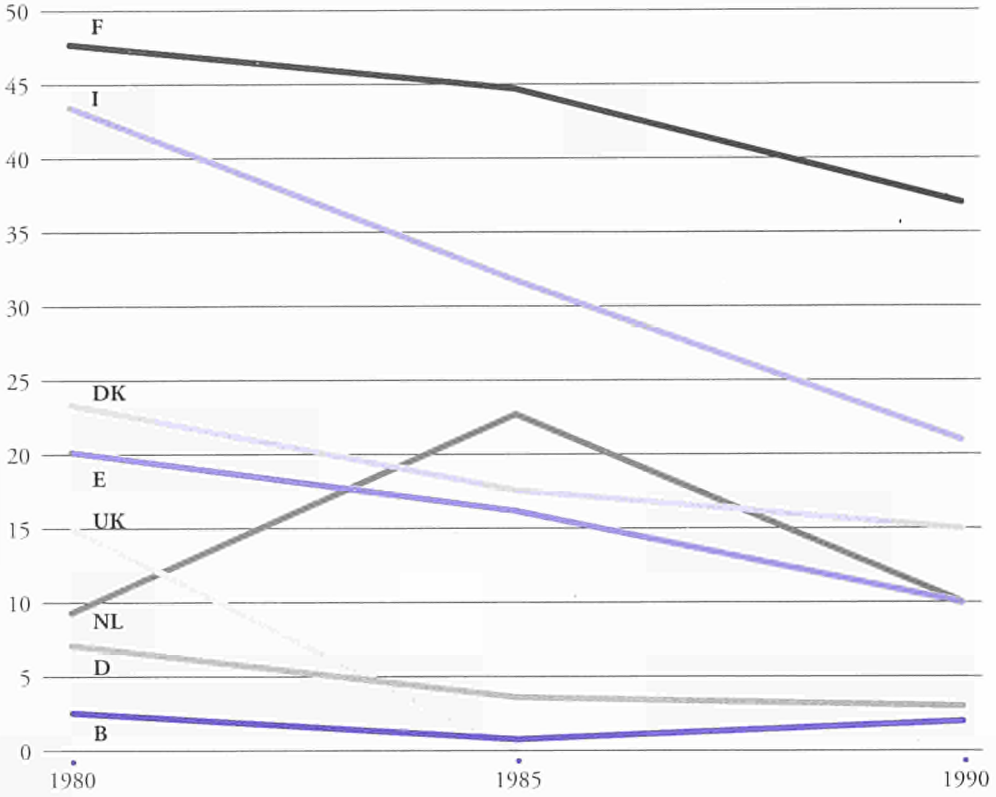
	B	DK	D	GR (1)	E	F	I (2)	L (2)	NL	UK
Nationally-produced films	2	15	10	:	10	37	21	:	3	:
American films	66	77	84	85	:	58	66	80	:	80

Source: CNC.
1 1988 data.
2 1989 data.

The proportion of American films contributing to box office receipts has risen steadily, particularly since 1985.

Between 1980 and 1990, nationally produced films earned 10 to 20% of receipts in Spain, Denmark and Germany. In the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, however, they accounted for less than 10% of receipts and American films for over 75%. Belgium is a special case in that, although American films account for 65.6% of receipts, Belgian films account for only 2.4%.

Share of box office receipts accounted for by nationally produced films
(%)



NB: Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg and Portugal: data not available.
Source: CNC.

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POLITICAL LIFE

The level of interest in politics shown by Europeans varies depending on the Member State. In 1990, 44% of those interviewed stated that they were 'very' or 'fairly' interested in politics, as against 33% who were 'not very' interested and 22% who were 'not at all interested'.

The political structures of the Member States are particularly wide-ranging with six republics and six constitutional monarchies.

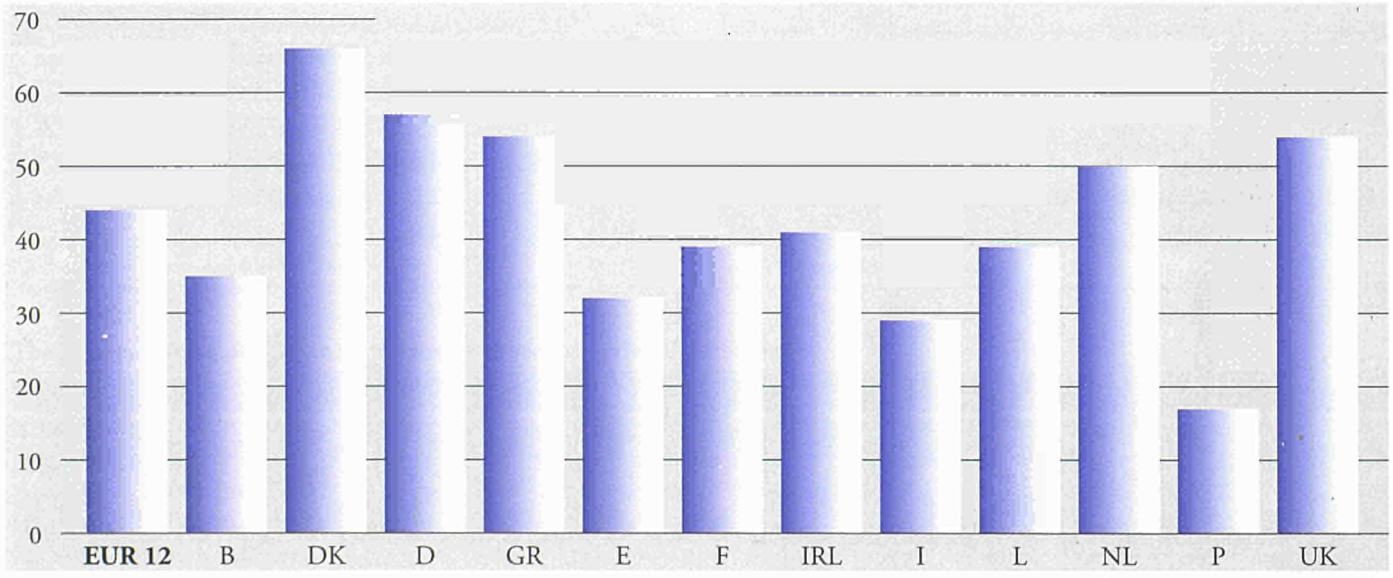
Although each political system has its own specific characteristics, the one factor which remains constant is the low number of female representatives. Women account for less than 20% of all parliamentary representatives in Europe.

In 1993, 60% of Europeans interviewed said that they were in favour of their country belonging to the European Community. In practice, however, there has been a relative drop in the numbers voting in the European Parliament elections (the only Community institution with elections by direct universal suffrage).

Europeans do not know much about the Community institutions, and yet, whilst only 41% said that they had heard of the European Parliament, around 56% of the electorate turned out for the elections held in June 1994.

In all, 41% of those interviewed replied that they were 'in favour of' the Maastricht Treaty, the main objectives of which are to involve the individual citizen in the Community process, the introduction of a European citizenship and the systematic use of the principle of subsidiarity.

Persons stating an interest in politics, 1990 (%)



Source: Eurobarometer 'Trends 1974-92'.

Since 1992, Europeans have become somewhat sceptical about the state of democracy in their countries.

The number of European citizens who said that they were dissatisfied with the way democracy worked in their country (55%) exceeded the number of those who were satisfied (42%).

The feeling of dissatisfaction was strongest among the Italians (88%), the Greeks (65%), those living in the former German Democratic Republic (60%), the French (56%) and the Spanish (55%).

The conditions governing the voting rights of Community nationals resident in another Member State vary from one Member State to the next.

For example, a Belgian citizen living abroad loses his/her right to vote in Belgium. Whilst the same is also true for the Irish, they can take advantage of a special clause which allows them to vote in the UK

The voting age is 18 in all the Member States, but the age at which a citizen can stand for election varies from 18 to 25 depending on the country and the type of elections being held.

elections if they are resident in the United Kingdom.

The percentage turnouts at national general elections fluctuate considerably.

In the four Member States where voting is compulsory, the turnout was almost 93% in Belgium, 87% in Luxembourg, 77% in Greece and 67% in Ireland.

The governing parties represent four main ideological groupings: communists, conservatives, Christian-democrats and socialists.

In December 1993, the Member States were governed as follows:

Germany, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom by conservative parties or coalitions;

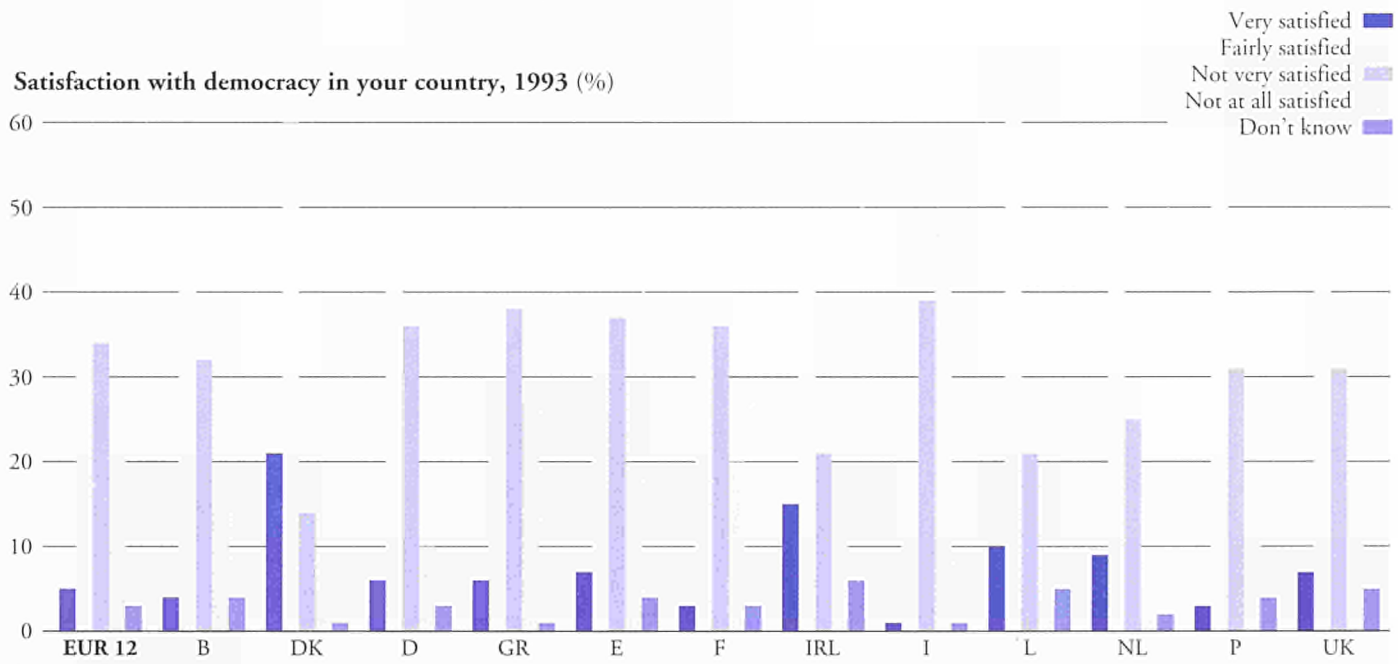
Belgium, Greece and Spain by socialist or centre-left governments;

Denmark, Ireland, Italy and Luxembourg by centrist coalitions made up of parties from both the left and the right;

Portugal by a socialist president and a centre-right government, and France by a socialist president and a right-wing government.

Of the EFTA countries, Austria and Switzerland are governed by centrist coalitions made up of parties from both the left and the right, Finland by a conservative coalition, Iceland by a coalition of independents and social democrats, Norway by the labour party and Sweden by a coalition of conservative and central parties.

Satisfaction with democracy in your country, 1993 (%)



Source: Eurobarometer, No 39.

In a number of Member States, such as Belgium, Greece, France and Italy, women were not given the vote until well into this century.

Women have entered politics after a long and gradual process, and the fact that they only received the vote fairly recently in some countries could explain why they are still under-represented in national parliaments and governments.

Women are under-represented in political life.

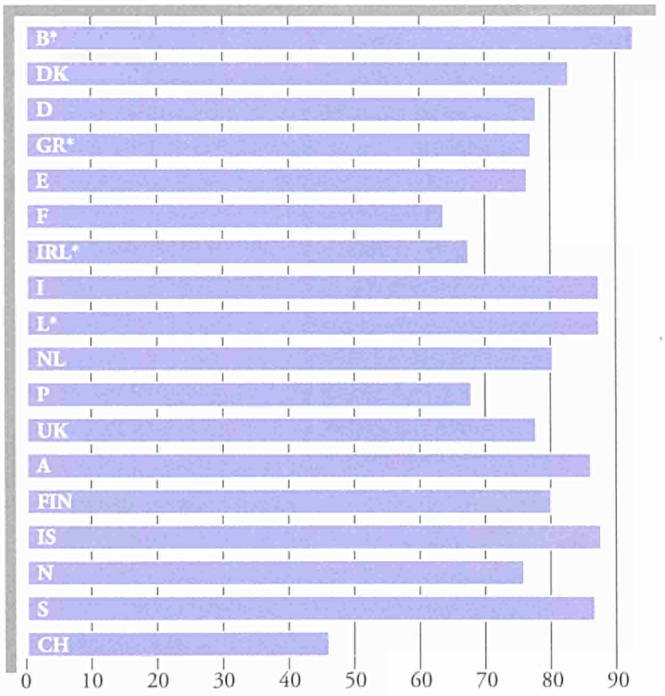
Steps should be taken to involve them more in society's decision-making processes.

This situation applies to the political representation of women in both legislative bodies (national parliaments) and executive bodies (national governments).

The representation of women in national governments

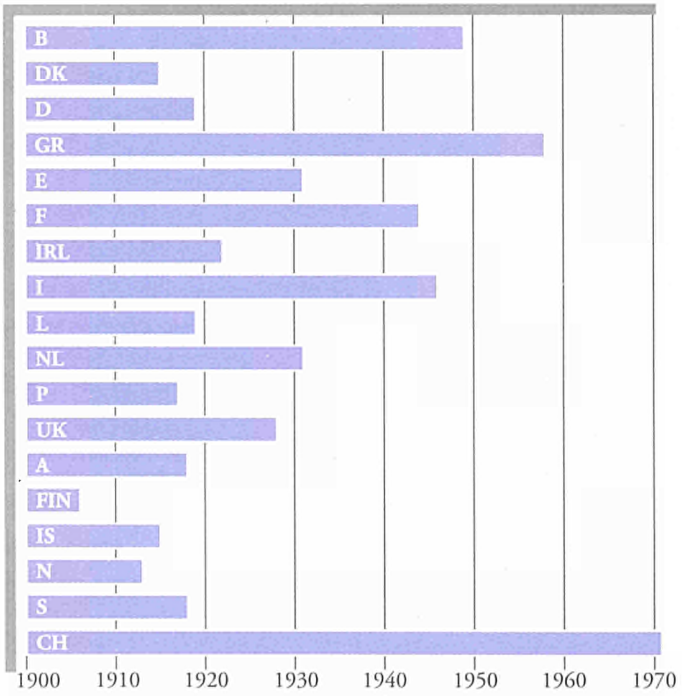
	Date when the government was formed	Total	Number of women	% of women
EUR 12		**484**	**61**	**12.6**
B	1991	16	2	12.5
DK	1990	19	4	21.1
D	1992	53	9	17.0
GR	1992	37	3	8.1
E	1991	18	2	11.1
F	1992	42	7	16.7
IRL	1992	30	5	16.7
I	1993	62	8	12.9
L	1989	12	1	8.3
NL	1989	25	6	24.0
P	1991	71	7	9.9
UK	1992	99	7	7.0

Turnout at the last national general elections, 1989-93 (%)



NB: * = countries where voting is compulsory.
Source: National statistical institutes.

Year in which women were given the vote



Source: National statistical institutes.

The representation of women in the lower houses of national parliaments

	EUR 12	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	A	FIN	IS	N	S	CH
Date of the elections		1991	1990	1990	1990	1993	1993	1992	1992	1989	1991	1991	1992	1990	1991	1991	1993	1991	1991
Total	**4 167**	212	179	662	300	350	577	166	630	60	150	230	651	183	200	63	165	349	200
Women	**513**	20	59	136	14	56	35	20	51	8	34	20	60	38,5	77	15	65	115	35
%	**12.3**	9.4	33	20.5	4.7	16	3	12	8.1	13.3	22.7	8.7	9.2	22.4	38.5	23.8	39.4	33	17.5

The European Union is made up of six monarchies and six republics.

It can be seen as an institutional melting pot, as each Member State has its own political structure. The Union is also, however, exclusively made up of parliamentary systems and democratic institutions.

Three of the six EFTA member States, member States of the European Economic Area, are monarchies and three are republics.

Political functions and structures vary appreciably from one Member State to another and particularly for the executive power.

Democracy arrived relatively recently in three Member States: Portugal in 1973, Greece in 1974, Spain in 1975.

Political system and structures

Nine monarchies	Heads of State	Since
Belgium	HM Albert II	1993
Denmark	HM Margrethe II	1972
Spain	HM Juan Carlos I	1975
Luxembourg	HRH Grand-Duke Jean of Luxembourg	1964
Netherlands	HM Beatrix	1980
United Kingdom	HM Elizabeth II	1952
Liechtenstein	HH Prince Hans Adam II	1984
Norway	HM Harald V	1991
Sweden	HM Carl XVI Gustaf	1973

Ten republics	System	Heads of State	Election method	Since	Term (in years)
Germany	Federal State with parliamentary system	Roman Herzog	Federal assembly	1994	5, renewable once
Greece	Parliamentary republic	Nicolao Papandreou	Lower house	1993	6, renewable once
France	Central State with semi-presidential system	François Mitterrand	Direct universal suffrage	Re-elected 1988	7, renewable once
Ireland	Parliamentary republic	Mary Robinson	Direct universal suffrage	1990	7
Italy	Parliamentary republic	Oscar Luigi Scalfaro	Parliament	1992	7, renewable once
Portugal	Semi-presidential republic	Mario Soares	Direct universal suffrage	Re-elected 1988	5
Austria	Federal republic	Thomas Klestil	Direct universal suffrage	1992	6
Finland	Parliamentary republic	Martti Ahtisaari	Direct universal suffrage	1994	6
Iceland	Parliamentary republic	Vigdis Finnbogadottir	Direct universal suffrage	Re-elected 1992	4
Switzerland	Federal republic	Otto Stich	Direct universal suffrage	1994	1

Support among European citizens for the construction of a united Europe has been relatively stable for the last 10 years.

Europeans interviewed on the belonging of their country to the European Union are generally in favour, despite the relative dip in support since 1991.

In 1993, 60% of those asked thought that their country's membership of the European Union was a 'good thing'.

Of the respondents, 73% said that they are 'in favour' or 'very much in favour' of the efforts made to unify Western Europe.

This generally positive opinion should be contrasted with opinions regarding the perceived advantages of membership of the European Community. These show that only 47% of citizens think that their country benefits from membership of the European Union, 35% think the contrary and 17% don't know.

Of Europeans interviewed, 42% would be sorry if the construction of a united Europe were scrapped, 38% said they would be indifferent and 11% would be 'relieved'.

Knowledge about the institutions responsible for running the European Union was very patchy.

Of the respondents, 71% felt that they were poorly informed.

European citizens do indeed know very little about the different institutions:

41% of Europeans said that they had heard of the European Parliament;

22% had heard of the European Council;

20% had heard of the Court of the Justice of the European Communities;

18% had heard of the European Commission;

16% had heard of the Council of Ministers;

5% had heard of the Economic and Social Committee.

Europeans are, however, relatively interested in European political life.

According to a 1993 opinion poll, 55% of European Union citizens said that they 'certainly' intended to vote in the fourth elections for the 567 Members of the European Parliament (scheduled for June 1994):

over 60% would 'certainly' vote (70% in Italy, 68% in Denmark, 64% in France);

21% of Europeans would 'probably' vote;

8% would 'probably not' vote;

9% would 'definitely not' vote.

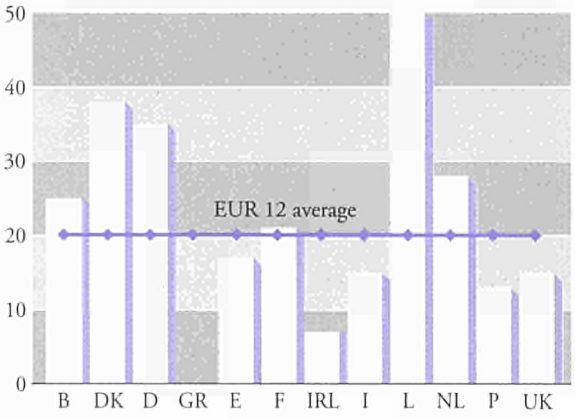
The turnout for the European Parliament elections has dropped each time since the first elections in 1979.

In 1979, some 62.5% of the electorate turned out for this five-yearly vote by direct universal suffrage. In 1984 the figure was 59.4% and by 1989 it was down to 58.5%. Despite these falling numbers, the figure is still relatively high compared to the 41% of Europeans who claim to 'have heard about' the European Parliament (see under European Parliament).

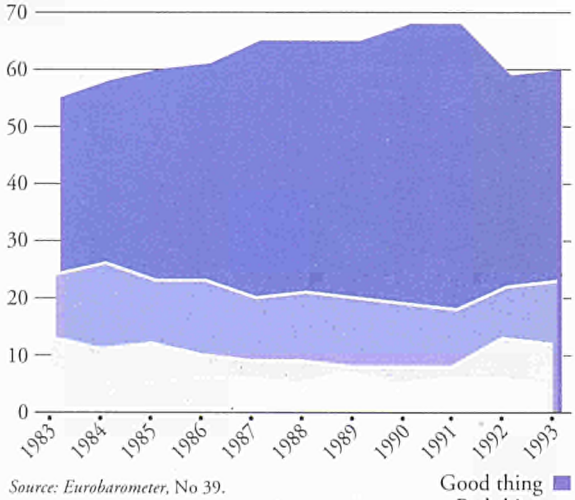
Less than 20% of the Members of the European Parliament are women.

Whilst the number of female Members of the European Parliament varies from country to country, the general trend is on the up. In 1979, they accounted for an average of 15% of MEPs, rising to 16% in 1984 and 18.5% in 1989. Greece is a special case, since every one of its 25 MEPs is male.

Percentage of women in the European Parliament, 1993



Appraisal of your country's membership of the European Union (%)



Source: Eurobarometer, No 39.

36% of European citizens knew Maastricht Treaty 'only in name'.

When asked about the Treaty during the second quarter of 1993 (i.e. a little over a year after its conclusion in Maastricht), 14% of Europeans said they knew 'a lot or a fair amount' about its contents, and 45% knew 'a little'.

Of those interviewed in an opinion poll, 41% said that they were 'in favour of' the Treaty, 24% were 'against' and a sizeable 35% were 'undecided'. The national context would appear to play a determining role in the opinions expressed.

The Maastricht Treaty establishes the European Union, whose aims are:

to promote lasting economic and social progress through the creation of an area without internal frontiers and the establishment of economic and monetary union with a *single currency;*

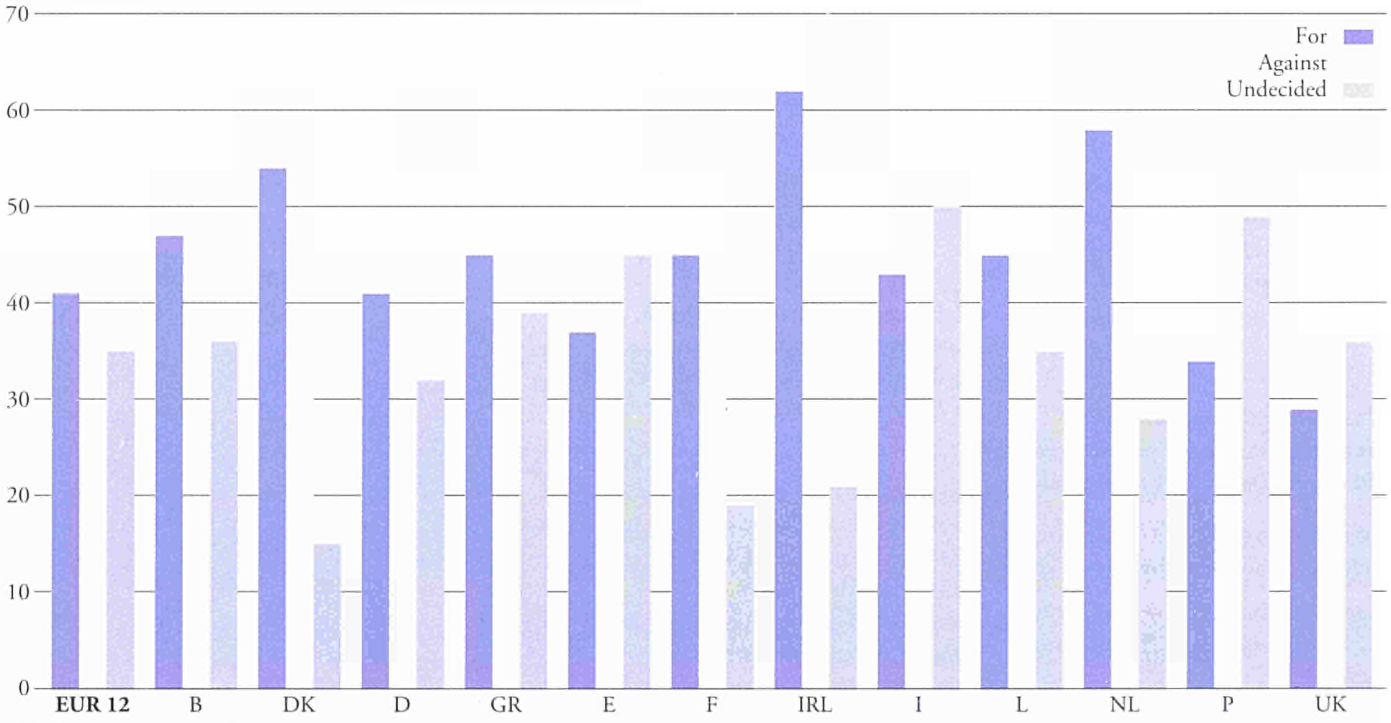
to assert its identity on the international scene through the implementation of a *common foreign and security policy;*

to strengthen the protection of the rights and interests of the nationals of its Member States through the introduction of a *citizenship of the Union.*

It also establishes the *principle of subsidiarity.* To counter the feeling of 'frustration' felt by the Community electorate at its lack of involvement in decisions taken centrally in Brussels, the Treaty introduced the principle of subsidiarity. This principle stipulates that in areas which do not fall within its exclusive competence, the Community shall take action only if and in so far as the objectives of the proposed action cannot be sufficiently achieved by the Member States and can be better achieved at Community level.

The central role of the European Council is confirmed as the forum for discussing national legal concerns.

The opinions of citizens about the Maastricht Treaty [1] (%)



[1] The data are from a March 1993 survey.
Source: Eurobarometer, No 39.

Over 50% of Europeans expressed 'favourable' opinions about the different objectives set out in the Treaty.

The implementation of the Treaty involves political, social and economic changes. When asked about certain specific aspects of the Treaty, the majority of Europeans were in favour of the changes, with the exception of the issue of voting rights in municipal elections for Community nationals resident in a Member State other than their own.

Along with the European Union, the concept of 'citizen of the Union' has been introduced to denote every person holding the nationality of a Member State.

This in no way replaces national citizenship. Every European citizen can now move and reside freely within the territory of the Member States, and has the right to vote and stand as a candidate at municipal elections in the Member State in which he/she resides, even if he/she is not a national of that country.

The implementation of the Treaty has financial consequences for the Member States and, therefore, repercussions for their inhabitants.

The priority for all the Member States is strict control of Community expenditure. For the Mediterranean countries, the implementation of the Maastricht Treaty is accompanied by a substantial amount of aid, hence the further rise in 'structural measures' (see the European Social Fund).

Opinions about the proposals in the Maastricht Treaty

(% of persons interviewed)

	For	Against
Close cooperation in the fight against drugs trafficking and organized crime	91	4
The framing of a common defence policy (basic provision of the Treaty)	77	13
Common rules as regards political asylum	76	14
Basic common principles in the field of social policy	73	13
Greater involvement of the regions in decisions taken by the European Union (Committee of the Regions)	67	13
Common foreign policy towards countries outside the European Union (53% of the British and 59% of the Danes are against)	66	19
European Monetary Union with a European Central Bank pursuing a policy of monetary stability and anti-inflationary measures (key element of the Treaty) (46% of the Danes, 46% of the British and 52% of the Germans are against)	62	25
The European Parliament should be more involved in European legislation	60	13
The European Union should only be responsible for matters which cannot be tackled effectively by national governments (principle of subsidiarity)	57	23
A single currency should replace all the national currencies in the European Union by 1999 (basic provision of the Treaty)	52	38
Each citizen of a country in the European Union should have the right to vote in the municipal elections of the country in which he/she is resident	48	41

Source: Eurobarometer, No 39.

Timetable and procedures for the ratification of the Maastricht Treaty in the Member States

The Treaty on European Union was concluded in Maastricht on 9 and 10 December 1991 by the Heads of State or Government of the Twelve at the 46th European Summit. It was approved on 7 April 1992 by the European Parliament with 226 votes for, 62 against and 31 abstentions. It was signed by the 12 Ministers for Foreign Affairs on 7 February 1992, and then submitted to the national parliaments. It entered into force on 1 January 1993.

Belgium:
17 July 1992: ratification by the Lower House (143 votes for, 33 against); 4 November 1992: ratification by the Upper House (115 votes for, 26 against and 1 abstention).

Denmark:
2 June 1992: a narrow victory for the 'no' vote in a referendum; 12 and 13 December: Denmark is accorded special status at the Edinburgh Summit; 18 May 1993: referendum produces 56.8% vote in favour of ratification.

Germany:
2 December 1992: the Treaty is adopted by the Bundestag (543 votes for, 17 against and 8 abstentions); 18 December 1992: ratified unanimously by the Bundesrat.

Greece:
31 July 1992: Parliament approves ratification (286 votes for, 8 against).

Spain:
29 October 1992: the Cortes approves the Treaty (314 votes for, 3 against and 8 abstentions); 25 November 1992: ratified by the Upper House (222 votes for, 3 abstentions).

France:
20 September 1992: 51.0% 'yes' vote in a referendum on the Treaty.

Ireland:
18 June 1992: 69.1% 'yes' vote in a referendum on the Treaty.

Italy:
16 October 1992: the Treaty is approved by the Lower House (423 for, 46 against); 17 September 1992: ratified by the Upper House (176 votes for, 16 against).

Luxembourg:
2 July 1992: ratification by the Parliament (51 votes for, 6 against).

Netherlands:
12 November 1992: the Lower House ratifies the Treaty (137 for, 13 against); the Upper House is only 4 votes short of adopting it unanimously.

Portugal:
11 December 1992: ratification by the Parliament (200 votes for, 21 against).

United Kingdom:
2 August 1993: Parliament adopts the principle of ratification.

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COMMUNITY INSTITUTIONS

COUNCIL OF THE EUROPEAN UNION

The Council of the European Union adopts Commission proposals and is responsible for intergovernmental cooperation.

All matters which are important or have political implications are discussed in detail within the Council by the ministers and the Members of the Commission, who are entitled to take part in Council meetings.

The Council is made up of ministers from each Member State who change depending on the agenda: Ministers of Agriculture meet to deal with agricultural prices, Ministers of Labour and Economic Affairs discuss employment problems, etc.

Only the ministers may take Council decisions.

Number of votes per country for a vote by qualified majority
(as at 1 January 1995)

10	France, Germany, Italy, United Kingdom
8	Spain
5	Belgium, Greece, Netherlands, Portugal
4	Austria, Sweden
3	Denmark, Finland, Ireland
2	Luxembourg

As a result of the enlargement of the Union, the total number of votes in the Council has risen to 87.
The presidency of the Council rotates every six months, each Member State in turn assuming this function with the assistance of a Committee of Permanent Representatives (Coreper),[1] which organizes preparatory meetings.

[1] Coreper comprises the Member States' ambassadors to the Community and their assistants.

There are frequent meetings of the Council of the European Union, and these are often long.

In 1992, the Council held 89 meetings (including three of the Council of the European Union). The Committee of Permanent Representatives met 48 times. When the Council is close to reaching a decision on a particularly difficult problem, meetings of the Council of the European Union may turn into 'marathon sessions'.

The Committee of Permanent Representatives is responsible for preparing the discussions of the Council of the European Union.

When the Commission places before the Council a memorandum of general application or a proposal on a specific point, Coreper prepares the discussions (except in the case of agriculture, for which there is a special committee) with assistance from numerous working parties or committees, some of them standing committees.

The Commission is represented at all meetings of the Committee of Permanent Representatives and of special committees or working parties, which means that the dialogue begun with national experts may continue with the officials appointed by their governments and with the ambassadors.

The Council takes its decisions by a qualified majority of 62 of the 87 possible votes when it is acting on a proposal from the Commission

In all other cases, these 62 votes must reflect a favourable stance on the part of at least 10 Member States. If Council members accounting for 23 to 24 votes announce their intention of opposing a decision taken by the Council by a qualified majority, the Council does everything in its power to ensure that a satisfactory solution commanding at least 65 votes is reached within a reasonable period of time and without infringing the obligatory time limits fixed by the Treaties and by secondary legislation.

The Treaties require unanimous decisions when the Council wishes to depart from Commission proposals. On less important matters and when unanimous agreement has been reached among the Permanent Representatives and the representatives of the Commission, the Council adopts the decision without discussion. This procedure is now also applied for certain decisions taken by a qualified majority when the minority delegations forego their right to request discussion by the Council.

Throughout 1993, the Council of the European Union monitored the employment situation, which gave particular cause for concern.

It thus welcomed the Commission's Green Paper on European social policy and the White Paper on growth, competitiveness, employment, these being attempts to gather together and present suggestions for future action by the European Union and the Member States. The Council also debated general social protection matters, in particular the situation of older persons and those at risk of social exclusion.

As regards regulating labour relations, the Council of the European Union adopted a Directive on certain aspects of the organization of working time.

Following a broad measure of agreement within the Council on the proposal for a Directive on setting up a European Works Council, the Commission launched the procedure for consulting management and labour provided for by the Protocol on social policy annexed to the Treaty on European Union.

As regards protecting workers' health and safety, the Council has issued a Directive on minimum health and safety requirements on board fishing vessels and defined a common position on the proposal for a Directive on protection for young people at work.

The main Community legal acts are:

regulations, which have general application, are binding in their entirety and directly applicable in all Member States; in 1992, 3 956 regulations were adopted;

decisions, which are also binding but apply only to the Member States, enterprises or individuals to whom they are specifically addressed;

directives, which are binding as to the result to be achieved but the Member States choose how they are to be incorporated into national legislation; in 1992, 625 decisions and directives were adopted;

recommendations, which have no binding force;

opinions: the European Parliament gives its opinion on draft Community legislation, i.e. it approves, rejects or amends drafts. The Council of the European Union may be obliged to take account of its opinions;

resolutions and ***own-initiative reports:*** Parliament may adopt resolutions and own-initiative reports reflecting its points of view and recommendations, but these have no binding force.

The ***European Council*** is not an institution, but it is important in that it provides impetus and helps to fix guidelines.

Set up in 1974, this Council, which consists of the heads of government (the Head of State in the case of France), the President of the European Commission, the Foreign Ministers and a Member of the Commission, normally meets twice a year.

The Treaty on European Union confers upon the Council of the European Union certain responsibilities concerned with foreign and security policy and economic and monetary union.

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COMMUNITY INSTITUTIONS

EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

Set up under the Treaty of Rome in 1957, the European Parliament has steadily increased its powers. Representing 'the peoples of the States brought together in the Community', it ensures that citizens have a say in political decision-making and exercises democratic control over the executive arm (Commission and Council).

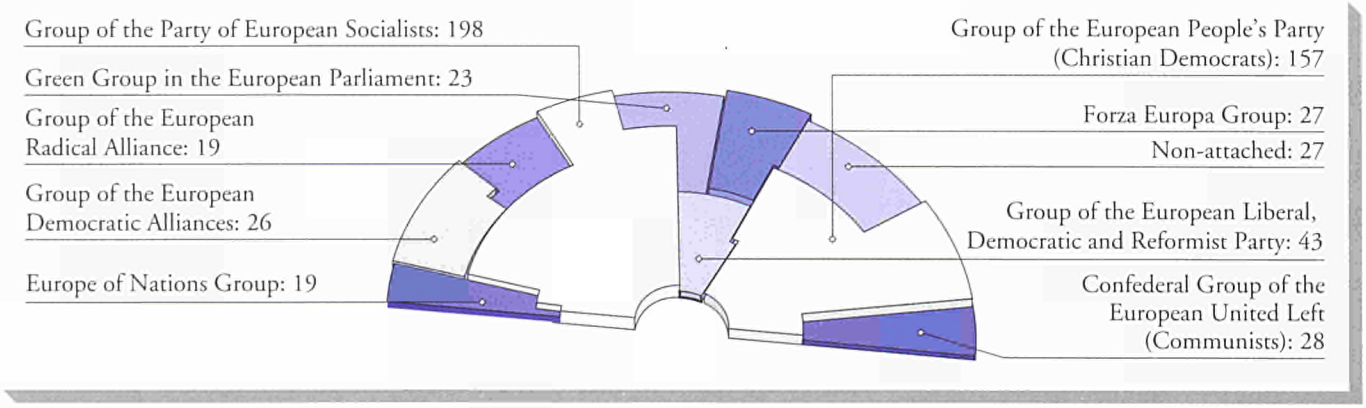
One of its functions is to provide the political impulse for the strengthening of the European Union by proposing action to be taken. It is concerned to defend human rights and maintain links with all the democratically elected parliaments in the world, and also adopts the Union's budget after establishing it with the Council of the European Union.

With the entry into force of the Maastricht Treaty, it is jointly responsible, with the Council, for decision-making in several fields ('co-decision procedure') and it accordingly gives its assent to the ratification of treaties and approves the appointment of Members of the Commission.

Up to 1979, Members of the European Parliament were appointed by the national parliaments. Since that date, they have been elected by direct universal suffrage by over 300 million citizens of Europe voting in accordance with their national systems. The Maastricht Treaty, however, expresses the desire to harmonize these voting systems by bringing the proportional representation system into general use.

Since 1979, the Groups of the Party of European Socialists (PSE) and the European People's Party (PPE) have had the most Members in the European Parliament. Since June 1994, the socialist group has been the largest.

Composition of the European Parliament following the June 1994 election



The European Parliament is managed by a bureau comprising the President and 14 Vice-Presidents elected by the Members for a five-year period. Parliament has 20 Committees, which prepare the work of the plenary sessions, where the Members sit in political groupings and not according to nationality.

The Parliament elected in June 1994 has a majority of socialists and Christian Democrats.

The PSE has 198 Members out of 567 and the PPE 157. These groups, like the others, include Members from more than one country, an arrangement which makes it possible to override purely national concerns and make the Community more democratic.

The number of Members is more or less proportional to the size of the country.

There are 87 Members for the larger countries (as many as 99 for Germany) and six for Luxembourg. Since the number of representatives in the European Parliament depends on the size of a country's population, it is possible to assess how loudly the people of Europe are making their voice heard through their representatives. In Denmark, Ireland and Luxembourg, each Member represents fewer people and thus the people of those countries have a greater representation in Parliament. The electors of the larger countries have fewer deputies, proportionally, to defend their interests in the European Parliament.

Names of political groupings

PSE: Group of the Party of European Socialists

PPE: Group of the European People's Party (Christian Democrats)

ELDR: Group of the European Liberal, Democratic and Reformist Party

GUE: Confederal Group of the European United Left (Communists)

FE: Forza Europa Group

RDE: Group of the European Democratic Alliance

V: Green Group in the European Parliament

ARE: Group of the European Radical Alliance

EN: Europe of Nations Group

NI: Non-attached.

Evolution of number of Members

	1989	1994	1995
EUR 12	**518**	**567**	**625**
B	24	25	25
DK	16	16	16
D	81	99	99
GR	24	25	25
E	60	64	64
F	81	87	87
IRL	15	15	15
I	81	87	87
L	6	6	6
NL	25	31	31
P	24	25	25
UK	81	87	87
A	–	–	20
FIN	–	–	16
S	–	–	22

Under the Treaty on European Union, the number of Members rose from 518 to 567 as from the 1994 elections and their distribution by country was amended (mainly to take account of German unification and population changes).

Numbers of Members of the European Parliament

	Total	PSE	PPE	ELDR	GUE	FE	RDE	V	ARE	EN	NI
B	25	6	7	6	–	–	–	2	1	–	3
DK	16	3	3	5	–	–	–	1	–	4	–
D	99	40	47	–	–	–	–	12	–	–	–
GR	25	10	9	–	4	–	2	–	–	–	–
E	64	22	30	2	9	–	–	–	1	–	–
F	87	15	13	1	7	–	14	–	13	13	11
IRL	15	1	4	1	–	–	7	2	–	–	–
I	87	18	12	7	5	27	–	4	2	–	12
L	6	2	2	1	-	–	–	1	–	–	–
NL	31	8	10	10	-	–	–	1	–	2	–
P	25	10	1	8	3	–	3	–	–	–	–
UK	87	63	19	2	–	–	–	–	2	–	1
A	20	8	6	1	–	–	–	1	–	–	1
FIN	16	4	4	6	1	–	–	1	–	–	–
S	22	11	6	3	1	–	–	1	–	–	–

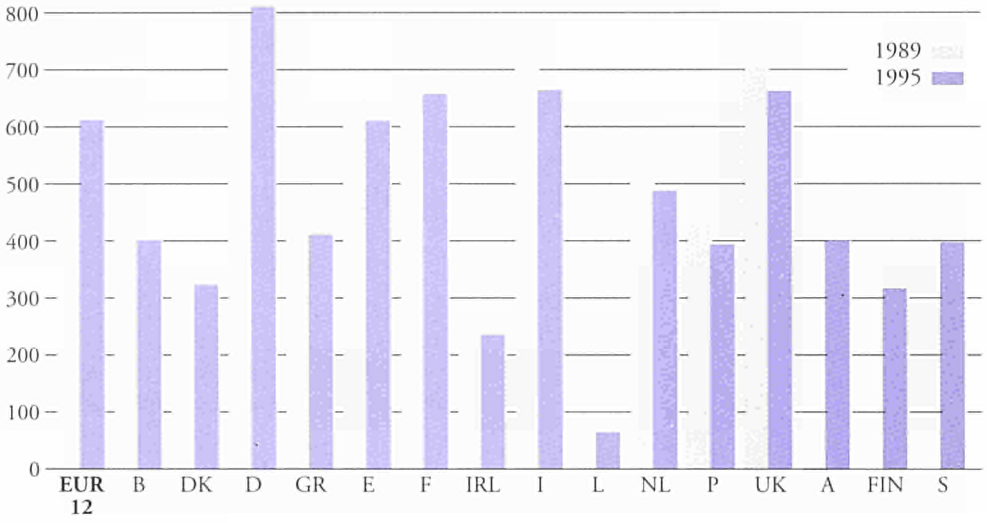
In 1994, each Member of the European Parliament represented an average of 600 000 Europeans, as against 500 000 in 1989.

The number of inhabitants represented by each Member rose considerably compared with 1989 in Germany and even more so in Denmark, Ireland and Luxembourg. In the other eight Member States the number fell, but the way in which the new Members have been distributed does not mean that the citizens of the smaller countries, who already had a proportionately larger say in 1989, have lost any ground to the larger Member States.

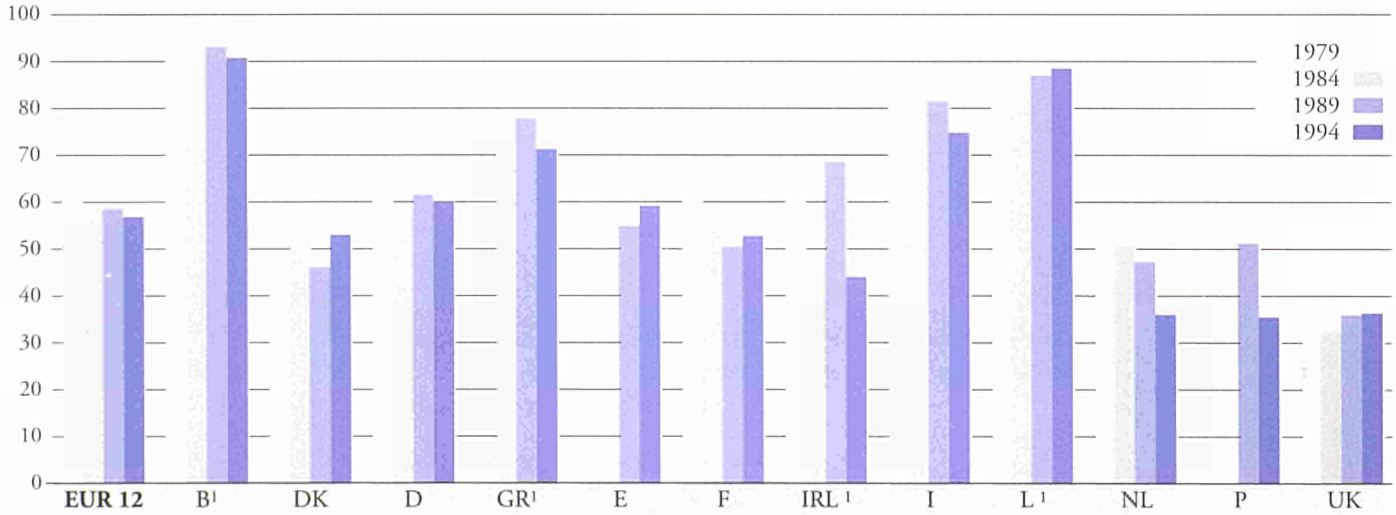
Changes in the turn-out for European Parliament elections may be considered a reflection of the state of democracy in the Union.

In Belgium, Greece, Ireland and Luxembourg, voting is compulsory. Three of these countries (the exception being Ireland) had the highest turn-outs in the Union in June 1994, along with Italy (over 70%). In the United Kingdom, the turn-out rate was lowest but slightly up on the 1989 figure, at 36.4% compared with 36%. The trend is also upwards in Denmark, France and Spain but interest in European politics would seem to be waning in Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands and Portugal, judging from their lower turn-outs in the latest European elections.

Number of inhabitants per seat (in thousands)



Turn-out for the European Parliamentary elections (%)



[1] Voting is compulsory.

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COMMUNITY INSTITUTIONS

EUROPEAN COMMISSION

One of the European Commission's tasks is to ensure that the Community Treaties and decisions are implemented correctly. It may institute infringement procedures against the Member States and refer certain cases to the Court of Justice. It may also impose fines on private individuals, especially in relation to competition policy.

The Commission alone has the right of initiative where Community legislation is concerned and may put forward its point of view throughout the process leading to the adoption of a 'European law'. It may issue proposals involving intergovernmental cooperation on the same basis as the Member States.

Finally, the Commission is the Community's executive body. It drafts the implementing texts for certain legal provisions and administers budget appropriations.

Since the enlargement to 15 Member States on 1 January 1995, the European Commission is composed of 20 Members, one of whom holds the office of President. They act independently of governments in the sole interest of the European Union.

France, Germany, Italy, Spain and the United Kingdom are each represented by two Commissioners

Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg,Netherlands, Portugal and Sweden are each represented by a single Commissioner

The Members and the President of the European Commission are appointed by the Member States' governments following consultation with the European Parliament.

As from 1995, the Commission's term of office, like the European Parliament's, is no longer four but five years.

The European Commission employs just over 19 000 officials.

They work for some 20 Directorates-General, most of which are based in Brussels (seat of the Commission) or Luxembourg. This staffing figure does not yet reflect the accession of Austria, Finland and Sweden.

European officials by institution, 1994

Commission	19 027
European Parliament	3 790
Court of Justice	837
Court of Auditors	427
Council	2 302
Economic and Social Committee	510
Total	**26 893**

The Community budget, administered by the Commission, reflects the solidarity which exists between Member States.

In 1994, it totalled ECU 70 000 million. The Member States' contributions vary in accordance with their wealth. Germany contributes the most — 30.36% of the total — followed by France (19.34%) and Italy (14.16%).

Member States' contributions to the European Union budget, 1994

	million ECU	%
EUR 12	**69 497.6**	**100**
B	2 763.9	3.98
DK	1 376.7	1.98
D	21 100.3	30.36
GR	1 019.0	1.47
E	5 654.1	8.14
F	13 442.5	19.34
IRL	542.5	0.78
I	9 843.3	14.16
L	148.7	0.21
NL	4 379.1	6.30
P	1 139.5	1.64
UK	8 087.4	11.64

The Community's expenditure is financed from levies in various fields.

Over half of its revenue comes from VAT. Net agricultural levies, set up to encourage producers cut back on surpluses, account for 1.33%.

Summary of expenditure financing, 1994

	million ECU	%
Net agricultural levies	921.0	1.33
Net levies in the sugar and isoglucose sector	1 117.9	1.61
Net customs duties	12 169.3	18.16
VAT	35 931.3	51.70
GNP	17 377.9	25.01
Reserves	1 530.0	2.20
Total	**69 497.6**	**100**

The structure of the Community budget has always given agriculture an important place, but the breakdown of expenditure has changed since the budget was instituted.

During the 1960s, the 90% of expenditure which went towards the common agricultural policy (CAP) ensured that the national agricultural sectors were integrated into the Community area. Since 1970, a different function has been swallowing up an ever-increasing share of Community expenditure: 'structural operations', i.e. transfers of money to the Union's least-developed regions.

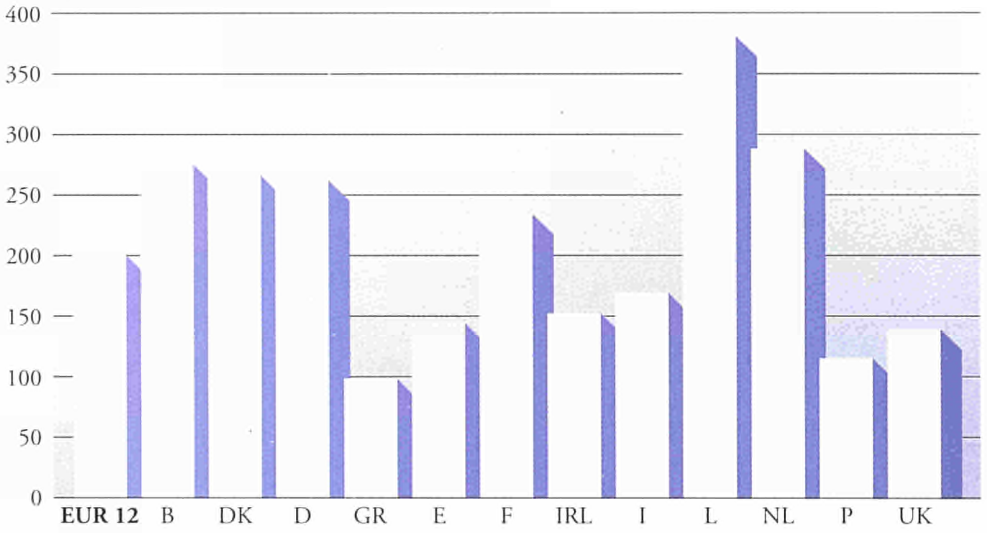
In 1994, the common agricultural policy, 'guarantee' section, still received 53.5% of the Community budget and structural operations 30.7%. Less than 1% goes to 'Training, youth, culture, audiovisual media and information', since, in line with the subsidiarity principle, these fields are more the responsibility of the Member States.

The administrative expenditure of the Commission and the other institutions is less than 4.7% of the total budget.

On average, Europeans each contributed ECU 201 to the Community budget in 1994.

Some countries, such as Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Luxembourg and the Netherlands, contribute more than the average. These national differences reflect the desire of all countries to make their contribution towards convergence between the Member States.

Per capita contribution to the EC budget, 1994
(ECU)



Breakdown of budgetary expenditure by area, 1994

	million ECU	%
1. EAGGF, 'guarantee' section	37 465.0	53.5
2. Structural operations, other agricultural and regional operations, transport and fisheries	21 528.8	30.7
3. Training, youth, culture, audiovisual media, information and other social operations	539.5	0.8
4. Energy, Euratom nuclear safeguards and environment	174.4	0.2
5. Consumer protection, internal market, industry and trans-European networks	0.4	0.7
6. Research and technological development	2 555.3	3.6
7. Cooperation with developing countries and other third countries	3 348.2	4.8
8. Repayments, guarantees, reserves	320.0	0.5
9. Other	2 428.0	3.5
10. Other institutions	1 189.6	1.7
Total expenditure	**70 013.5**	**100**

Source: Official Journal L 34, 7.2.1994.

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COMMUNITY INSTITUTIONS

COURT OF JUSTICE AND COURT OF FIRST INSTANCE

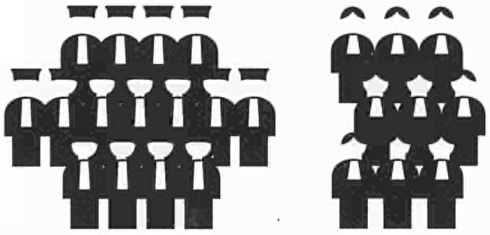
The only law which the Community uses in pursuing its objectives is 'Community law', an autonomous, uniform law applying to all the Member States of the Community, separate from but superior to national law.

The Court of Justice was set up in 1952 to ensure that Community law was respected and properly implemented.

It is the Community's judicial institution, the lynchpin of legal protection when Community law is contested or applied.

Since 1990, there has also been a Court of First Instance, set up to maintain the quality and efficiency of judicial controls within the Community's legal system.

The Court of Justice comprises 15 judges assisted by nine Advocates-General



The Court of First Instance is composed of 15 judges

The composition of the Court of Justice and the Court of First Instance reflects the accession of the three new Member States on 1 January 1995.

The members of both Courts are appointed by the governments of the Member States for a renewable term of six years.

Between 1953 and 31 December 1993, 8 268 cases were brought before the Court of Justice of the European Communities.

Over the same period, it delivered 3 728 judgments. Between 1983 and 31 December 1993, there was a 63% increase in the number of cases brought before the Court and a 34% increase in the number of judgments delivered.

Cases relating to social questions settled by the Court of Justice over the past four years — an average of 15% of the judgments given — have been concerned with the 'free movement of persons' and 'social policy'.

Cases brought before the Court of Justice may be divided up into different forms of action,

namely:

direct actions;

references for preliminary rulings;

actions brought by officials;

appeals;

opinions.

DIRECT ACTIONS

Action for failure to fulfil obligations

The Commission may start proceedings when it considers, following a formal notice and a reasoned opinion, that a Member State has failed to fulfil one of its Community obligations.

Action for annulment

The Member States, the Council of the European Union, the Commission and, under certain conditions, the European Parliament and natural or legal persons, may bring such an action against Community acts, regulations, directives or decisions.

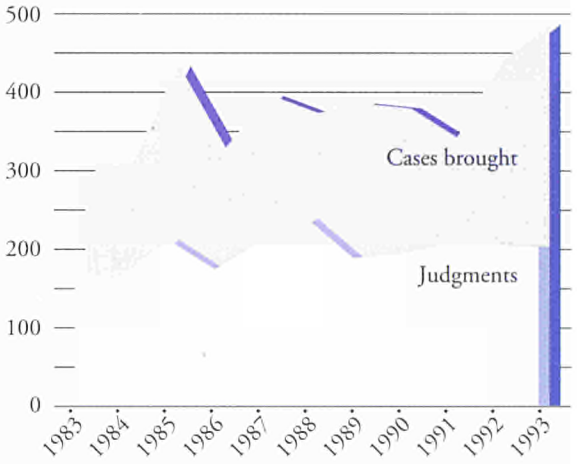
Action for declaration of failure to act

The Member States and the other Community institutions may apply to the Court of Justice when the European Parliament, the Council of the European Union or the Commission fails to act, in infringement of the Treaties.

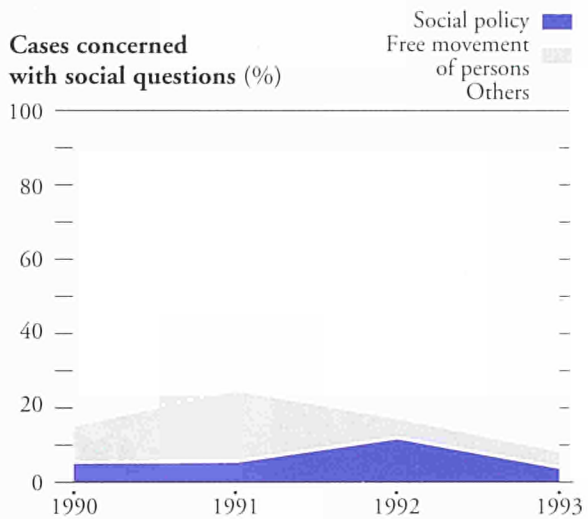
Action for damages

The Court is responsible for ruling on whether or not the Community is liable for damage caused by the Community institutions or by their servants in the performance of their duties.

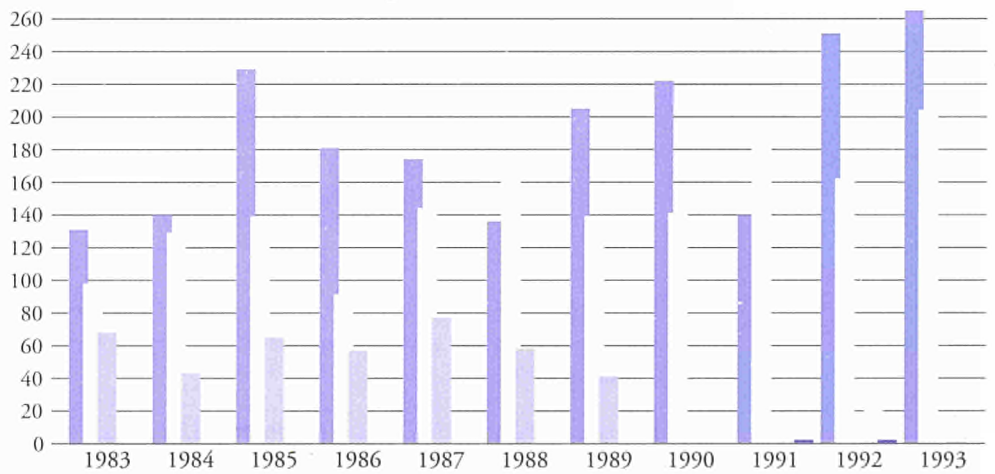
Cases brought before the Court since 1983 and judgments



Cases concerned with social questions (%)



The different forms of action brought before the Court since 1983



[1] Responsibility of the Court of First Instance since 31 October 1989.
[2] Since the Court of First Instance was established.

Between 1953 and 31 December 1993, 1 229 direct actions were brought before the Court of Justice, 276 by the Member States and 953 against them.

France, Germany and Italy brought the largest number of direct actions, and around 59% of all actions against Member States were brought against Belgium, France and Italy. Very few actions have been introduced by or against Portugal.

Between 1953 and 31 December 1993, 2 690 requests for preliminary rulings were brought before the Court.

Some 31% of these came from German courts, 18% from French courts and 15% from the Netherlands. Very few requests came from Greek, Spanish or Portuguese courts.

Most of the actions dealt with by the Court of Justice are direct actions or references for preliminary rulings.

Mention should also be made of the following, however:

actions by officials (the responsibility of the Court of First Instance since 1989);

appeals (since 31 October 1989), and

opinions.

References for preliminary rulings

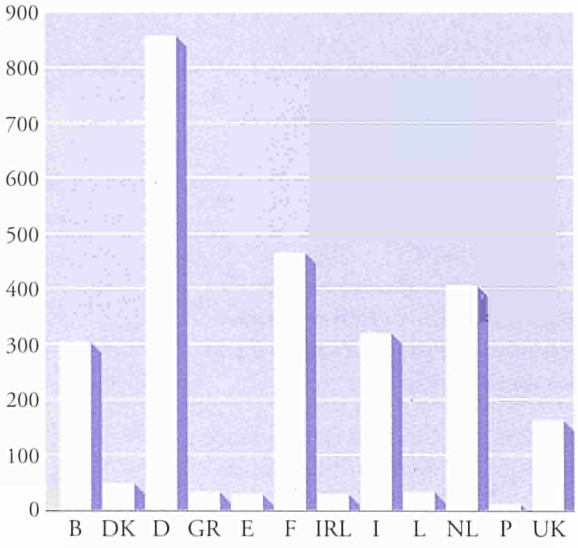
In order to avoid an interpretation which differs from Community law as regards content and implementation, the Member States' national courts may apply to the Court of Justice either for interpretation of Community law or for an assessment of the validity of measures taken by the Community institutions.

Actions by officials deal with disputes between the Community institutions as employers and their officials or other servants as regards the conditions laid down in the Staff Regulations.

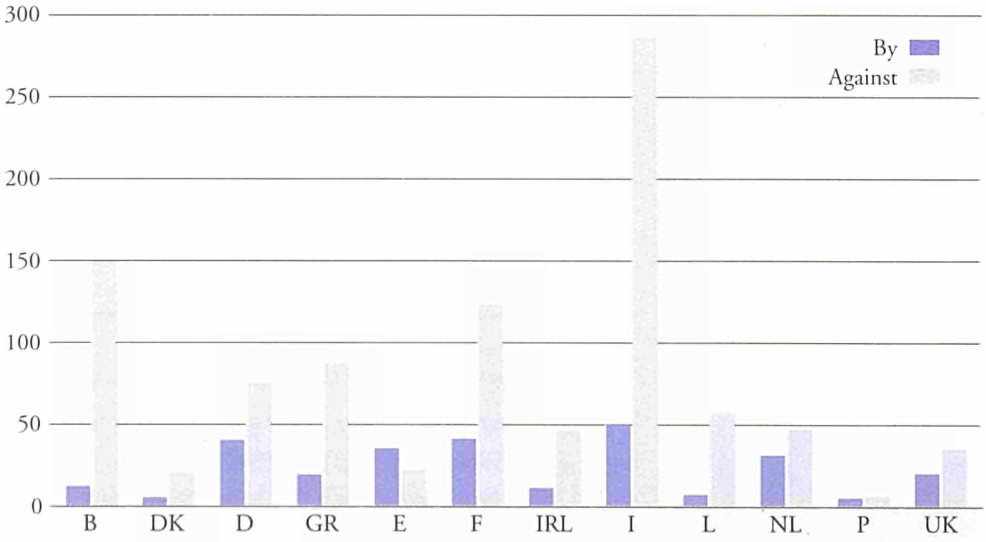
Appeals are restricted to points of law relating to judgments and other decisions of the Court of First Instance.

Opinions are delivered by the Court of Justice at the request of the Council of the European Union, the Commission or a Member State, to determine whether international agreements are compatible with Treaty provisions.

Request for preliminary rulings brought to the Court since 1953



Direct actions brought to the Court since 1953



The Court of First Instance currently has jurisdiction to rule at first instance on:

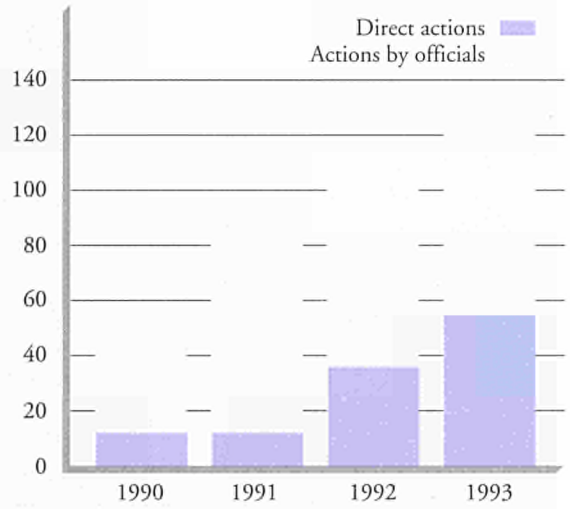
disputes between the Union and its servants;

actions brought against the Commission under the ECSC Treaty by undertakings or associations of undertakings;

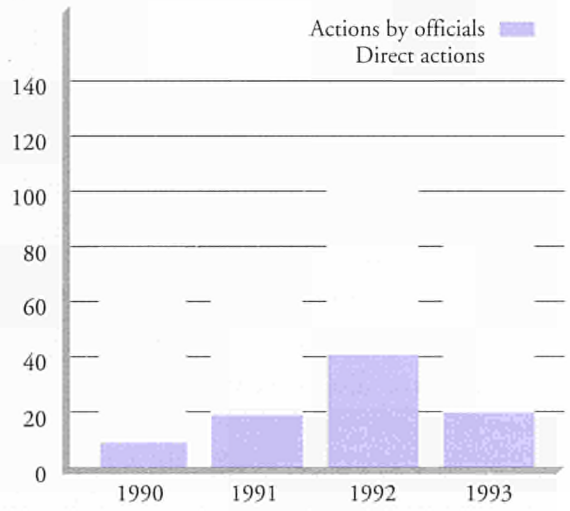
actions brought against a Community institution by legal or natural persons in connection with the implementation of the rules on competition applicable to undertakings; and

more generally, any direct action taken by natural or legal persons.

Cases brought before the Court of First Instance



Cases settled by the Court of First Instance



The number of cases brought before the Court of First Instance has risen substantially since it was set up in 1990.

In 1993, the Court of First Instance settled 23.75% more cases than in 1990.

REFERENCES

The Court of Justice of the European Communities.

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1991 Annual report (and 1992 and 1993 data).

COMMUNITY INSTITUTIONS

THE COURT OF AUDITORS

The Court of Auditors examines the accounts of the Community and of all bodies set up by it.

It checks the legality and regularity of receipts and expenditure, ensures that the Community's finances are properly managed and reports back to the institutions of the European Union.

In its annual report, it draws attention to problems of administration and control which may affect the reliability of the accounts and increase the risk of unlawful or irregular transactions.

With the ratification of the Maastricht Treaty, the Court has to provide the budgetary authorities (the European Parliament and the Council of the European Union) with a statement certifying the reliability of the accounts and the legality and regularity of the underlying transactions.

The Court took over from the EEC and Euratom Audit Board and from the ECSC Auditor as the body in charge of external auditing of the Community's general budget and the ECSC's operating budget. Internal auditing is still a matter for each institution's financial controller.

Court of Auditors

The Court of Auditors began work in October 1977. Since 1 January 1995 it has been composed of 15 members, appointed unanimously by the Council of the European Union after Parliament is consulted.

In setting up the Court, the governments and institutions (particularly the European Parliament) showed that they wanted a qualitative change in the style of budgetary auditing.

Final appropriations are the outcome of the initial budget, which is approved by the European Parliament for each financial year, and the final budget, which is made up of receipts and transfers of appropriations between budget headings. The initial budget has risen by 43.5% since 1988 and final appropriations by 39.7%. Payments have increased by around 33%.

Implementation of the Community's general budget since 1988

(million ECU)

Financial year	Initial budget	Final budget [1]	Final credits [2]	Payments	Carried forward to the next financial year	Cancellations
1988	43 778.8	43 820.4	43 844.9	43 301.9	819.0	2 724.0
1989	44 837.8	44 840.6	44 870.3	40 411.2	438.8	4 020.3
1990	46 716.9	49 928.3	46 974.6	42 978.9	1 396.0	2 599.7
1991	55 556.1	56 085.4	56 116.4	52 712.5	1 110.6	2 293.3
1992	62 827.6	61 096.8	61 280.8	57 589.6	1 343.9	2 347.2

NB: The figures for years prior to 1991 are not always comparable with those of following years as a result of changes in the budgetary nomenclature in 1991.
[1] Following amending and supplementary budgets.
[2] Following additional receipts and transfers between budget headings.

In 1992, 4.76% of the final Community budget was earmarked for the institutions' administrative appropriations.

Of the total of ECU 2 969.2 million 3.1% was for the administration of the Commission and 1.73% was divided up for the administration of the other institutions.

Administrative appropriations of the institutions, 1992

(million ECU)

Institutions	Administrative appropriations
Commission	1 912.7
European Parliament	589.4
Council of the European Union	347.1
(of which: ESC)	51.6
Court of Justice	83.3
Court of Auditors	36.7
Total	**2 969.2**

Basic information on the general budget

(Extracts from the 16th Annual Report of the Court of Auditors,
published in Official Journal C 309, 16.11.1993, p. 401, 403 and 404)

5.3. Main budgetary principles laid down in the Treaties and the Financial Regulation

All items of Community revenue and expenditure are to be included in a single budget (unity). Revenue is to be used without distinction to finance all expenditure and, like the expenditure, is to be entered in full in the budget and subsequently in the accounts without any adjustment of one item against another (universality). The appropriations are specialized according to their nature or intended use (speciality). The budget is authorized for one financial year only (annuality). Budgetary revenue and expenditure must balance (equilibrium). There are some exceptions to these general principles.

5.8. Implementation of the general budget

5.8.1. Responsibility for implementation

The Commission implements the budget on its own responsibility in accordance with the Financial Regulation and within the limits of the appropriations allotted; it also confers upon the other institutions the requisite powers for the implementation of the sections of the budget relating to them. The Financial Regulation lays down the implementation procedures and, in particular, the responsibilities of the authorizing officers, accounting officers, administrators of advance funds and Financial Controllers of the institutions. In certain specific areas (EAGGF-Guarantee, mainly the Structural Funds) the management of Community funds is shared with the Member States.

5.9. Presenting the accounts

The accounts for a given financial year are forwarded not later than 1 May of the following financial year to Parliament, the Council and the Court of Auditors; these accounts comprise a revenue and expenditure account and a balance sheet, together with analysis of the financial management.

5.10. External audit

As from 1977 the external audit of the general budget has been carried out by the Court of Auditors of the European Communities. The Court of Auditors examines the accounts of all revenue and expenditure of the general budget. It also considers whether revenue has been received and expenditure incurred in a lawful and regular manner, and whether the financial management has been sound. The audits may be carried out before the closure of the financial year in question and are performed on the basis of records and, where necessary, on the spot in the institutions of the Communities and in the Member States. The Court of Auditors draws up an annual report for each financial year and may also, at any time, submit its observations on specific questions and deliver opinions at the request of one of the institutions of the Communities.

5.11. Discharge and follow-up

As from 1977 the following provisions are applicable: Parliament, on the recommendation of the Council, gives, before 30 April of the second year following the financial year in question, discharge to the Commission on the implementation of the budget. To this end the Council and Parliament in turn examine the accounts presented by the Commission and the annual report of the Court of Auditors. The institutions must take appropriate action on the comments appearing in the decisions giving discharge and report on the measures taken.

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Annual report of the Court of Auditors, 1992 financial year, accompanied by the replies of the institutions, OJ C 309, 16.11.1993.

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